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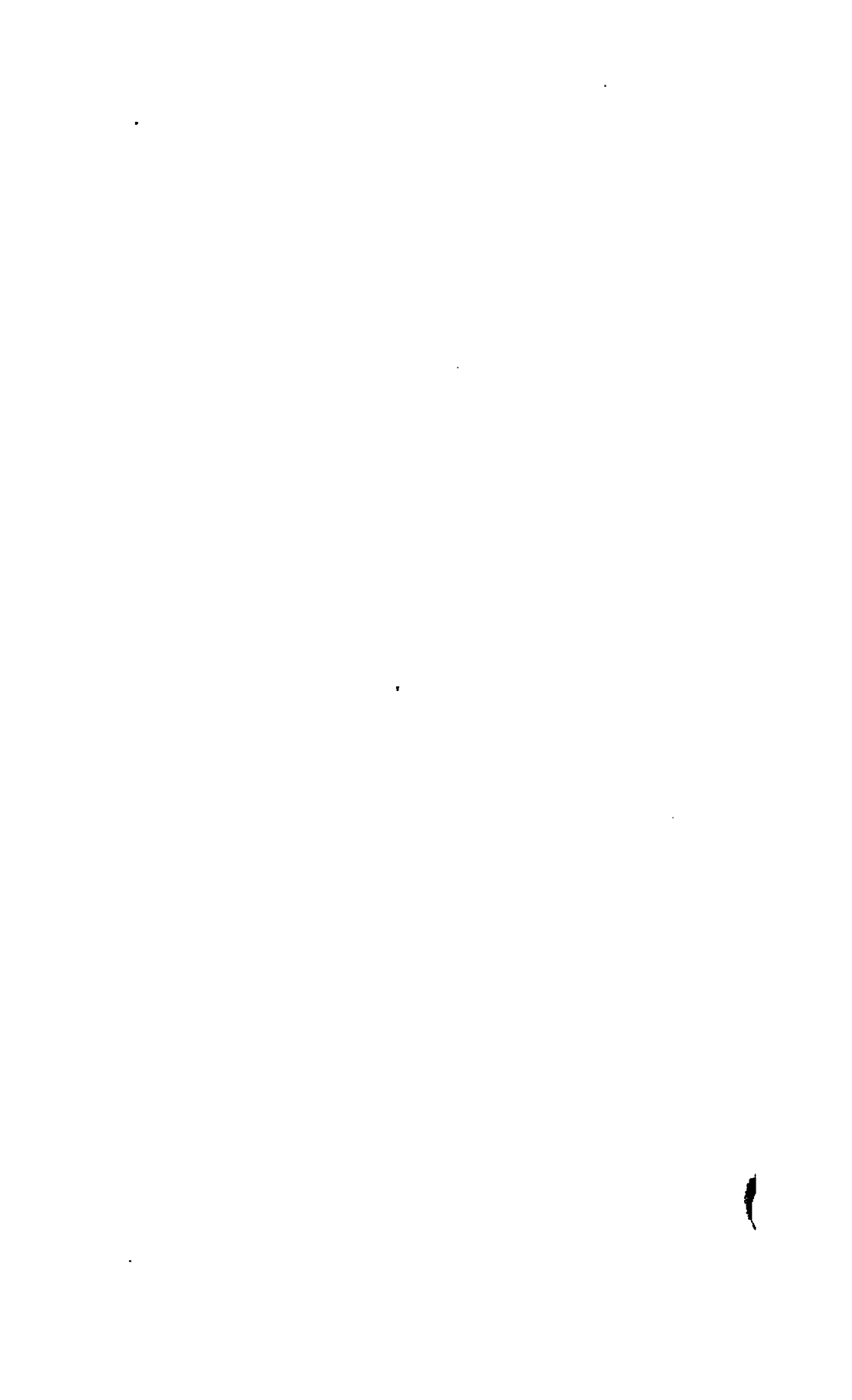
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**MURRAY'S
ENGLISH GRAMMAR**

SIMPLIFIED ;

DESIGNED

TO FACILITATE THE STUDY OF THE

ENGLISH LANGUAGE ;

COMPREHENDING THE

PRINCIPLES AND RULES OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR,

ILLUSTRATED BY

APPROPRIATE EXERCISES ;

TO WHICH

IS ADDED A SERIES

OF

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

ABRIDGED

FOR THE USE OF SCHOOLS.

BY ALLEN FISK,
Author of *Adam's Latin Grammar Simplified.*

the principles of knowledge become most intelligible to young persons, when they are explained inculcated by practical illustration and direction.

MURRAY.

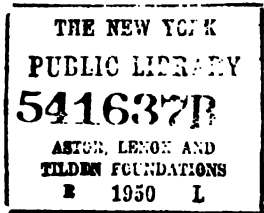
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.....
1822.



NORTHERN DISTRICT OF NEW-YORK, TO WIT :

BE IT REMEMBERED, that on the twenty-fifth day of May, in the forty sixth year of the Independence of the United States of America, A. D. 1822, Allen Fisk, of the said district, has deposited in this office the title of a book the right whereof he claims as author, in the words following, to wit :

Murray's English Grammar Simplified ; designed to facilitate the study of the English language ; comprehending the principles and rules of English grammar, illustrated by appropriate exercises ; to which is added a series of questions for examination. Abridged for the use of schools. By Allen Fisk, author of Adam's Latin grammar, simplified.

The principles of knowledge become most intelligible to young persons when they are explained and inculcated by practical illustration and direction. **Murray.**

In conformity to the act of the Congress of the United States, entitled " An act for the encouragement of learning, by securing the copies of Maps, Charts, and Books, to the authors and proprietors of such copies, during the times therein mentioned ;" and also to the act entitled " An act supplementary to an act entitled ' An act for the encouragement of learning, by securing the copies of Maps, Charts, and Books, to the authors and proprietors of such copies during the times therein mentioned,' and extending the benefits thereof to the arts of Designing, Engraving and Etching historical and other prints

RICHARD R. LANSING, Clerk of the
Northern District of New-York.

INTRODUCTION.



JINDLEY MURRAY's *English Grammar* has been so long an inmate of our academies and schools of almost every grade, that its merits are familiar to all. It has stood the test of criticism, and been pronounced by the best judges, both in this country and in Great Britain, the most complete English grammar extant. Indeed it is generally allowed, that Mr. Murray has done more to elucidate the principles of our language, and to fix our grammar on its only just foundation, the established practice of our best speakers and writers, than any other grammarian whatever. His grammar is therefore justly considered a standard work, whose authority may be appealed to with safety, on doubtful or disputed points.

But it were wrong to infer that, because Murray's grammar is a work of great and acknowledged excellence, it is therefore perfect and incapable of further improvement. Such a principle would have precluded us from the benefit even of Mr. Murray's labours. He has made great improvement in the works of his predecessors; and his successors will doubtless find room for some improvement in his work. In fact it seems to be generally conceded, at the present day, that, in point of arrangement at least, the work in question is not so well adapted to the use of schools and the comprehension of juvenile minds, as might be. The author's plan, when properly carried into effect, was no doubt a good one. In his "General Directions for using the Exercises," he says, "As soon as the learner has committed to memory the definitions of the article and substantive, as expressed in the grammar, he should be employed in parsing one parts of speech, as they are arranged in the exercises. The learner should proceed in this manner, through all the definitions contained in Etymology, regularly parsing the exercises on one definition before he applies to another." This plan, though excellent in its general design, is yet defective, inasmuch as it subjects the student to the task of committing the definitions to memory before he understands them, and as it postpones entirely the study of Syntax till that of Etymology has been completed. And besides, the grammar and exercises being in separate books, it has unfortunately happened that the former, especially the abridgment, has found its way into a great many schools, where the latter are never seen. In defect of these, the student's patience has often been exhausted in committing the grammar, perhaps repeatedly, to memory with no apparent design or advantage; and his courage dissipated by making his first essay in parsing, in promiscuous exercises;—as if in arithmetic should first commit to memory all the rules and definitions in

his book, and then attempt to solve miscellaneous questions ! That a course so tedious and revolting should have rendered the study of English grammar extremely perplexing, and generally unprofitable, is no more than might have been expected. But the several publications on this subject, that have lately appeared, in which a different course is pursued, and which aim to relieve the student from the task of committing to memory what he does not understand, are evidence of a better judgment and of more correct views.

Mr. Murray observes, in the Introduction to his grammar, that "A distinct general view, or outline, of all the parts of the study in which they are engaged ; a gradual and judicious supply of this outline ; and a due arrangement of the divisions, according to their natural order and connexion, appear to be among the best means of enlightening the minds of youth, and of facilitating their acquisition of knowledge."—"The method which he has adopted, of exhibiting the performance in characters of different sizes, will, he trusts, be conducive to that gradual and regular procedure, which is so favourable to the business of instruction. The more important rules, definitions, and observations, and which are, therefore, the most proper to be committed to memory, are printed with a larger type ; whilst rules and remarks, that are of less consequence, that extend or diversify the general idea, or that serve as explanations, are contained in the smaller letter ;—*these or the chief of them, will be perused by the student to the greatest advantage, if postponed till the general system be completed.*"

This hint suggested the arrangement of the following work. The *General View* comprises what Mr. Murray had printed in the larger type ; whilst the rules and remarks of minor importance, with such familiar explanations as the nature of the subject and the capacity of youth seemed to require, are ranged together under appropriate heads in the *Lectures*. To the compiler it appeared, that an outline of English grammar, containing the general principles and more important rules in a distinct body by themselves and within the compass of a few pages, would be calculated to make a clearer and therefore a more durable impression on the learner's memory, than if those principles and rules were spread over a larger surface and intermixed among others of less importance. This opinion appears to be justified by well established philosophical principles, connected with the human mind. In our efforts to recollect any precept or remark that we have read, we endeavour to call to mind the page where we saw it, the part of the page in which it was printed, or the form of the paragraph containing it ; and thus, by an association of ideas to which every mind is more or less accustomed, the words themselves are at length remembered. So in our reminiscences of geography, especially of places that we have never visited, we call to the view of the "mind's eye" a map that we have seen ; with the form and size of which are associated, in our memories, the course of the larger rivers, the situation of the principal towns, &c. Hence it appears that, by means of the association of ideas, the faculty of vision may

very materially assist that of retention ; and that it is of great importance, in elementary school-books, to render the eye as much as possible subservient to the memory.* It is with this design, that, in the following work, those rules and principles of English grammar, which, from their importance, deserve to be impressed on the memory in the clearest and most forcible manner, are embodied into a distinct General View, comprising only a few of the first pages.— With the same design, the octavo form has been adopted, as being the best calculated to present at a single view, a suitable number of those rules and principles, without rendering the size of the book inconvenient. The definitions and inflections of the parts of speech are arranged in the body of the page ; the correspondent rules of Syntax on the margin ; and the lessons for parsing, numbered and selected to correspond with the rules, are placed immediately under them, and opposite to the definitions.

By means of this arrangement the student becomes practically acquainted with Etymology and Syntax both at the same time. Etymological parsing alone is deficient ; it may serve to familiarize the learner with the variations of the verb, for instance, as love, lovest, loves ; but it requires Syntax to show him the reason of those variations, viz. to denote the agreement of the verb with nominatives of different persons. Thus Etymology and Syntax mutually explain and illustrate each other ; and should, therefore, always be studied together.

But, in the estimation of the unpractised learner, the facilities, which this work affords for parsing, and for dispensing with the vexatious task of committing to memory what he cannot understand, will probably be deemed not the least important. It has been well remarked, by a late writer on grammar, that “ it is *parsing* which illustrates the proper connexions of words, and makes the learner *remember* them.” And on this subject Mr. Murray very judiciously observes ;—“ The principles of knowledge become most intelligible to young persons, when they are explained and inculcated by practical illustration and direction. This mode of teaching is attended with so many advantages, that it can scarcely be too much recommended or pursued. Instruction which is enlivened by pertinent examples, and in which the student *is exercised in reducing the rules prescribed to practice*, has a more striking effect on the mind, and is better adapted to fix the attention and sharpen the understanding, than that which is divested of these aids and confined to bare positions and precepts ; in which it too frequently happens, that the learner has no further concern, than to read and repeat them. The time and care, employed in practical application, give occasion to survey the subject minutely, and in different points of view ; by which it becomes more familiar and better understood, and produces stronger and more durable impressions. These observations are peculiarly

* This principle appears to have been well understood by the Rev. Mr. Woodbridge and Mrs. E. Willard, authors of the *New System of Geography*. The frontispiece of their work, representing the relative size of the principal mountains, is an admirable design, & conveys a volume of instruction at a single view.

applicable to the study of grammar, and the method of teaching it." In the outline of this work, all the more important principles of Etymology and their kindred rules of Syntax are successively brought together on the same respective pages,—with such practical exercises in parsing, as are peculiarly adapted to exemplify and illustrate the principles to which they refer. By this means the study of grammar is assimilated to that of arithmetic; the student commences with parsing, in easy exercises, the simplest parts of speech; and by parsing, that is, by repeating the rules and definitions, and applying them to the example, he readily discerns their use and meanings, and at the same time commits them to memory.

Lesson 1st respects articles and nouns only; and the examples in this lesson are designed to exemplify the definition of nouns and the division of them into common and proper; the definition of the articles, their effect in limiting the signification of the noun, the force of the noun without any article, and the application of the first rule of Syntax.

In Lesson 2nd, the Adjective is introduced; and the examples in this lesson, besides answering the purpose of additional exercises on the articles and nouns, are especially adapted to illustrate the second rule, and to familiarize the learner with the definition, use, and comparison of adjectives.

Lessons 3d and 4th exemplify the distinctions of nouns with regard to gender, number, person, and case, with the declension of nouns and the 3rd and 4th rules, relating to the agreement and government of nouns; and so on through all the parts of speech, every successive lesson exemplifying some new principle, and adding some new matter to the stock of information already acquired from the preceding ones.

This course of lessons, which comprises all the general principles of Etymology and Syntax, is adapted to the humblest capacity; the learner takes up the subject in detail, and pursues it without confusion or fatigue. Pleased to find his understanding equal to his task, and gratified to perceive that he becomes master of the subject as he progresses, his efforts are encouraged by facility and rewarded with success.—After having taken this general survey, he will be prepared to enter, with intelligence and pleasure, upon the course of lectures; to fill up the outline with the subordinate rules; and to become acquainted with the nicer distinctions, the intricate and anomalous constructions of the language.

The system of Mr. Murray has been further improved in the following respects.

The division of verbs into active, passive, and neuter,—the neuter including *only* such as express simply being or a state of being, and the active including *all* such as express action, with the consequent subdivision of active verbs into transitive and intransitive, has been adopted. This arrangement of the verbs is simple and easily comprehended; and it avoids the inconsistency, so embarrassing to the learner, of ranking verbs expressing the highest degree of action—such as *to walk, to run, to fly, &c.* in the same class with verbs expressing no action at all.

To the second and third persons singular of the present tense subjunctive of verbs generally, and to the present and imperfect tenses of the verb *to be*, and of passive verbs, two forms have been assigned ;—the 1st or indicative form, which denotes simple contingency ; as, “ If he *desires* it, I will perform the operation,” that is, “ If he *now* desires it ;”—and the 2nd or varied form, which denotes both contingency and futurity ; as, “ If he *desire* it, I will perform the operation,” that is, “ If he should *hereafter* desire it.”—“ This theory of the subjunctive mood claims the merit of rendering the whole system of the moods consistent and regular ; of being more conformable than any other to the definition of the subjunctive ; and of not referring, to the indicative mood, forms of expression, that ill accord with its nature and simplicity.”

An abridged and improved system of punctuation has been inserted in this edition. The absence of the old system will not be regretted by those, who have attentively observed how very irregular and inconsistent it is, even in the hands of Mr. Murray himself ; nor can that, annexed to this volume, scarcely fail of being approved by all, who will take the little pains necessary to examine and reduce it to practice.

This book contains Murray’s grammar and exercises both in one volume. The instances of erroneous orthography or construction, designed to illustrate any particular rule, are printed immediately after that rule ; and those, intended to exemplify a collection of rules promiscuously, are inserted at the end of that collection. This arrangement, besides reducing the price of the work, brings its kindred parts together, and renders it more convenient for the learner.

In the later editions of Murray’s grammatical works, several additions and improvements were made ; but these, which consist of a great variety of important notes and critical discussions, instead of being arranged under their appropriate heads in the grammar, were printed in different parts of the Exercises and Key. The apology, offered by Mr. Murray, for this arrangement is, that “ the grammar had been *set up* and *kept standing*, and therefore could not admit of enlargement without an advance of the price.” In this edition these notes have all been inserted in their proper places in the grammar ; and besides them, this book, which has been compiled from the latest *octavo* edition of Murray’s grammar, contains numerous additions and improvements not to be found in any *duodecimo* edition.

In addition to the entire system of Mr. Murray, several pages of very useful matter, from other writers, have been incorporated into this work. Such are the explanations of the *names* of the parts of speech ; of the nature and construction of adjectives ; of the persons and cases of nouns ; of the meaning of the articles, and of the personal and relative pronouns ; of the nature and classification, the moods, tenses, and persons of verbs ; besides a great number of shorter paragraphs interspersed throughout the work. For these improvements, the work is principally indebted to the learned Horne Tooke, and the writer of the article on grammar in the “ New Edinburgh Encyclopædia.”

TO INSTRUCTERS.

THE following remarks, respecting the plan of instruction to which this work is adapted, are supplementary to the 'Directions for Parsing,' commencing at page 14.

After having completed the course of lessons, contained in the General View, commence with the Lectures on Orthography; and direct the student to prepare himself for an examination in the first Lecture, by reading it with such attention, as will enable him to answer, with promptness, the questions set down for that Lecture, in the 'Questions for Examination,' printed at the close of this volume. These questions respect both the General View and the Lectures; and, consequently, to answer them will require the student to review the former and to supply its deficiencies from the latter. The Rules for spelling words should be carefully committed to memory, and the Exercises in False Orthography corrected, before proceeding to the Lectures on Etymology.— While correcting these exercises, the student may also be occasionally practised in parsing them. The Lectures on Syntax have been arranged to correspond with those on Etymology, and are designed to be studied in the same course. Thus, after having read the first Lecture on Etymology, turn to the corresponding Lecture on Syntax; and so on through the whole course of Lectures on the second and third parts of English grammar. In conformity with this design, the Rules of Syntax are treated of in the order of the parts of speech to which those Rules principally relate. This arrangement presents the syntax, as well as the Etymology, of each part of speech in a distinct body by itself. Parsing, either in the select or the promiscuous exercises, should be continued daily, through the whole course.

To young and unpractised learners especially, it will afford an agreeable and useful variety of study, to be referred occasionally, during the introductory course of lessons in parsing, to the explanations, and required to correct the instances of erroneous construction attached to the principal rules in the Lectures on Syntax. "The rules," says Mr. Murray, "require frequent explanation; and, besides direct elucidation, they admit of examples, erroneously constructed, for exercising the student's sagacity and judgment. To rectify these, attention and reflection are requisite; and *the knowledge of the rule necessarily results from the study and correction of the sentence.* But these are not all the advantages, which arise from Grammatical Exercises. By discovering their abilities to detect and amend errors, and their consequent improvement, the scholars become pleased with their studies, and are animated to proceed, and surmount the obstacles, which occur in their progress. The instructor too is relieved and encouraged in his labours. By discerning exactly the powers and improvement of his pupils, he perceives the proper season for advancing them; and, by observing the points in which they are deficient, he knows precisely where to apply his directions and explanations."

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR is the art of speaking and writing the English language with propriety. It is divided into four parts, viz.

- | | |
|-----------------|----------------|
| 1. ORTHOGRAPHY, | 3. SYNTAX, and |
| 2. ETYMOLOGY, | 4. PROSODY. |

This division may be rendered more intelligible to the student, by observing, in other words, that Grammar treats,

First, of the form and sound of the letters, the combination of letters into syllables, and syllables into words ;

Secondly, of the different sorts of words, their various modifications, and their derivation ;

Thirdly, of the union and right order of words in the formation of a sentence ; and

Fourthly, of the just pronunciation, and poetical construction of sentences.

Grammar is that knowledge of words, which qualifies the possessor to speak and write with propriety. As a science, it unfolds the principles, by which man is directed in the contrivance of the variety of words. Its utility is extended by the opportunities it affords of tracing the connexion, which the phenomena of language, considered as a production of the human mind, have with the other principles of our nature.

Grammar may be considered as consisting of two species, Universal and Particular. *Universal* grammar explains the principles, which are common to all languages. *Particular* grammar applies those general principles to a particular language, modifying them according to the genius of that tongue, and the established practice of the best speakers and writers, by whom it is used.

The rules, therefore, relating to any particular language, are founded on the established practice of the best speakers and writers of that language, or on the practice of those, who possess that sort of conspicuousness in society, which is considered as entitling them to fix the standard of that language.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

ORTHOGRAPHY teaches the nature and powers of letters, and the just method of spelling words.

LETTERS.

A *letter* is the first principle or least part of a word. The letters of English language, called the English Alphabet, are twenty-six in number.

The following is a list of them in the Roman, Italic, and Old English characters.

Roman.		Italic.		Old English.		Name.
Cap.	Small.	Cap.	Small.	Cap.	Small.	
A	a	A	a	A	a	ai.
B	b	B	b	B	b	bee.
C	c	C	c	C	c	cee.
D	d	D	d	D	d	dec.
E	e	E	e	E	e	ee.
F	f	F	f	F	f	ef.
G	g	G	g	G	g	jee.
H	h	H	h	H	h	aitch.
I	i	I	i	I	i	i or eye.
J	j	J	j	J	j	jay.
K	k	K	k	K	k	kay.
L	l	L	l	L	l	el.
M	m	M	m	M	m	em.
N	n	N	n	N	n	en.
O	o	O	o	O	o	o.
P	p	P	p	P	p	pee.
Q	q	Q	q	Q	q	cue.
R	r	R	r	R	r	ar.
S	s	S	s	S	s	ess.
T	t	T	t	T	t	tee.
U	u	U	u	U	u	u or you
V	v	V	v	V	v	vee.
W	w	W	w	W	w	double u.
X	x	X	x	X	x	eks.
Y	y	Y	y	Y	y	wy.
Z	z	Z	z	Z	z	zed.

These letters are the representatives of certain articulate sounds, the elements of the language. An *Articulate* sound is the sound of the human voice formed by the organs of speech.

DIVISION OF LETTERS.

Letters are divided into Vowels and Consonants.

VOWELS.

A *Vowel* is an articulate sound, that can be perfectly uttered by itself; as, *a, e, o*, which are formed without the help of any other sound.

The vowels are *a, e, i, o, u*, and sometimes *æ* and *y*.

W and *y* are consonants, when they begin a word or syllable; but, in every other situation, they are vowels.

CONSONANTS.

A *Consonant* is an articulate sound, which cannot be perfectly uttered without the help of a vowel; as, *b, d, f, l*, which require vowels to express them fully.

Consonants are divided into mutes and semi-vowels.

The mutes cannot be sounded *at all*, without the aid of a vowel. . . . They are *b, p, d, t, k*, and *c* and *g*, hard.

The semi-vowels have an imperfect sound of themselves. . . . They are *f, l, m, n, r, v, s, z, x*, and *c* and *g*, soft.

Four of the semi-vowels, namely, *l, m, n, r*, are also distinguished by the name of *liquids*, from their readily uniting with other consonants, and *flowing*, as it were, into their sounds.

DIPHTHONGS.

A *Diphthong* is the union of two vowels, pronounced by a single impulse of the voice; as, *ea* in *beat*, *ou* in *sound*.

A *proper* diphthong is that, in which both the vowels are sounded; as *oi* in *voice*, *ou* in *ounce*.

An *improper* diphthong has but one of the vowels sounded; as, *ea* in *eagle*, *au* in *boat*.

TRIPHTHONGS.

A *triphthong* is the union of three vowels, pronounced by a single impulse of the voice; as, *cau* in *beau*, *iew* in *view*.

SYLLABLES.

A *syllable* is a sound, either single or compounded, pronounced by a single impulse of the voice, and constituting a word or part of a word;—as, *a, an, ant*.

SPELLING.

Spelling is the art of rightly dividing words into their proper syllables, or of expressing a word by its proper letters.

WORDS.

Words are articulate sounds used by common consent, as signs of our ideas.

A word of one syllable is termed a *Monosyllable*; a word of two syllables, a *Dyssyllable*; a word of three syllables, a *Tryssyllable*; and a word of four or more syllables, a *Polysyllable*.

All words are either *primitive* or *derivative*.

A *primitive* word is that, which cannot be reduced to any simpler word in the language; as, *man, good, content*.

A *derivative* word is that, which may be reduced to another word in English of greater simplicity; as, *manful, goodness, contentment*.*

There are many English words, which, though compounds in other languages, are to us *primitives*; thus, *circumvent, circumspect, circumstance, delude, concave, complicate*, &c. *primitive* words in English, will be found *derivatives* when traced in the Latin.

* A compound word is included under the head of derivative words; as, *penknife, stacy, looking-glass*, &c. which may be reduced to other words of greater simplicity.

ETYMOLOGY.

ETYMOLOGY treats of the different sorts of words, their various modifications, and their derivation.

Words are divided into nine sorts, commonly called *Parts of Speech*, viz.

- | | |
|---------------|------------------|
| 1. ARTICLE, | 6. CONJUNCTION. |
| 2. ADJECTIVE, | 7. ADVERB, |
| 3. NOUN, | 8. PREPOSITION, |
| 4. PRONOUN, | and |
| 5. VERB, | 9. INTERJECTION. |

1. An *Article* is a word placed before nouns to limit their signification ; as, "a garden, an eagle, the woman."

Of the whole number of words in the English language, which is about forty-thousand, this part of speech embraces only two, *a* or *an*, and *the*; and these are called *articles*, from the Latin word *articulus*, which signifies a *joint* or *very small part* of any thing.

2. An *Adjective*, or *Adnoun*, is a word added to a noun, to express some quality or circumstance of the object signified by the noun ; as, "a good man, a sweet apple, a tall tree."

The word, *adjective*, is derived from the Latin, *adicio*, to add, to apply, &c. and literally means *something added* or *applied*.

3. A *Noun* or *Substantive* is the *name* of any thing, that exists, or of which we have any notion ; as, "London, man, fruit, virtue."

The word, *noun*, is derived from the Latin word, *nomen*, which signifies a *name*.—Nouns are sometimes called *Substantives*, because they are supposed to be, in general, the names of *substances*, in contradistinction to adjectives, which are the names only of *qualities* belonging to those substances. Thus in the example above given, "a sweet apple,"—*apple* is the name of the substance, and *sweet* the name of a quality existing in that substance.

4. A *Pronoun* is a word used *for* or *instead of* a noun, to avoid the too frequent repetition of the same word ; as, "The man is happy, *he* is benevolent, *he* is useful."

Pronoun comes from the Latin word, *Pro-nomen*, compounded of *pro*, for, and *no-men*, a noun or name. The name of this part of speech indicates its use. Thus instead of saying, "When Cæsar had conquered Gaul, Cæsar fought against Cæsar's country," as we should be obliged to do, without using the pronoun,—we say, "When Cæsar had conquered Gaul, *he* fought against *his* country."

5. A *Verb* is a word, which signifies *To Be, To Do, or To Suffer* ; as, "I am, I rule, I am ruled ; He sleeps, she walks, they are beaten."

Verb comes from the Latin *verbum*, which signifies a *word*, and verbs are so called, because they denote what is *said* or *affirmed* of any thing. Thus when we say, "grass grows," the noun, *grass*, signifies the object of which we speak ; and the verb, *grows*, expresses what we say or declare of that object.

6. A *Conjunction* is a part of speech chiefly used to *connect* sentences ; so as, out of two or more sentences, to make but one ;—it sometimes connects only words ; as, "Thou *and* he are happy, *because* you are good ; Two *and* three are five."

Conjunctions are so called, because they are used to *con-join*, or to *join together*.

7. An *Adverb* is a word used to modify the signification of verbs, adjectives, and sometimes of other adverbs ; as, " He reads *well*, a *truly* good man, he writes *very* correctly."

Adverbs are more frequently *added to verbs*, to modify their signification, than to any other part of speech ; and are therefore called *ad-verbs*.

8. A *Preposition* serves to connect words with one another, and to show the relations between them ;—as, " He went *from* Boston *to* New-York ; She is *above* dispute ; They were conquered *by* him."

Preposition comes from the Latin *Pre-pono*, which signifies *to put before* ; and prepositions are so called, because they are *put before* nouns and pronouns, to show their relations to other words in the sentence.

9. An *Interjection* is a word *thrown in between* the parts of a sentence, to express the passions or emotions of the speaker ; as " I have alienated my friend, *alas* ! I fear forever."

Interjection comes from the Latin *interjicio*, which signifies *to cast, or throw, between*.

In the following passage, all the parts of speech are exemplified.

1 3 8 3 5 1 3 2 8 3 6 5 5 8
The power of speech is a faculty peculiar to man ; and was bestowed on
4 8 4 2 3 8 1 2 6 7 2 3 6
him by his beneficent creator for the greatest and most excellent uses ; but
9 7 7 5 4 5 4 8 1 2 8 3
alas ! how often do we pervert it to the worst of purposes !

In the foregoing sentence, the words, *the, a*, are articles ; *peculiar, beneficent, greatest, excellent, worst*, are adjectives ; *power, speech, faculty, man, creator, uses, purposes*, are nouns ; *him, his, we, it*, are pronouns ; *is, was, bestowed, do, pervert*, are verbs ; *and, but*, are conjunctions ; *most, how, often*, are adverbs ; *of, to, on, by, for*, are prepositions ; and *alas* ! is an interjection.

SYNTAX.

SYNTAX treats of the agreement, government, and proper arrangement of words in a sentence.

Syntax principally consists of two parts, Concord and Government.

Concord is the *agreement*, which one word has with another in gender, number, person or case ; as, " Herod imprisoned *John*, *him* whom they called the Baptist." Here *him* is of the masculine gender, singular number, third person, and objective case, agreeing in those respects with *John*.

Government is that power, which one part of speech has over another, in directing its mood, tense, number, person, or case ; as, " He is healthy, *because* he is temperate ;" " She will be punished, *unless* she repent." In the former of these examples, *because*, being a conjunction of a positive nature, requires the verb, *is*, following it, to be in the indicative mood ; in the latter, *unless*, being a conjunction expressing doubt or condition, requires the following verb, *repent*, to be in the subjunctive mood, &c.

SENTENCES.

A *Sentence* is an assemblage of words, forming a complete sense. . . . Sentences are either simple or compound.

A *Simple* sentence has in it but one subject, and one finite verb ;* as, *Life is short.*

A *Compound* sentence contains two or more simple sentences, connected together by one or more connective words ; as, *Life is short, and art is long. Idleness produces want, and vice, and misery.*

A *Phrase* is two or more words rightly put together, making sometimes part of a sentence, and sometimes a whole sentence.

The principal parts of a simple sentence are the subject, the attribute, and the object

The *subject* is the thing chiefly spoken of ; the *attribute* is the thing or action affirmed or denied of it ; and the *object* is the thing affected by such action. *A wise man governs his passions.* Here *man* is the subject ; *governs*, the attribute ; and *passions*, the object.

The nominative denotes the subject, and usually goes before the verb or attribute ; and the word or phrase, denoting the object, generally follows the verb.

DIRECTIONS FOR PARSING.

Having attentively perused the preceding brief outline, the learner is here presented with a few *Specimens of Parsing*. They will serve to direct the student's researches in preparing his lesson, and to exemplify the method of instruction proposed to be pursued in this work. The instructor should be careful himself to parse and illustrate the first example in each successive lesson, before he calls upon his pupils to exercise either their judgment or their memory. He should preface each task with an easy, familiar lecture, like the following, with reference to the *first lesson*.

This lesson contains articles and nouns only, two of the nine parts of speech.—Now a *noun* is the *name* of any thing, and an *article* is a word placed before that noun or name to limit its signification. A noun, therefore, without any article before it, is taken in its widest sense. Thus, the noun, *man*, without any article before it, means and includes all mankind ;—place the indefinite article, *a*, before it, as in the first example, *a man*, and the signification of the noun, *man*, is limited by the article, *a*, to some one man, but to no particular one,—for the phrase, *a man*, means *any one man* ;—but place the definite article, *the*, before the noun, *man*, and its signification is then limited to some particular man, referred to or spoken of before ; as, “ thou art *the* man,” viz. “ who hast done the very things, which thou condemnest in another.” Here observe, that articles are not used before proper nouns, because a proper noun, being the name of an individual, as *George, Thomas, &c.* is sufficiently definite of itself, and does not require any article to limit the extent of its signification ; but a common noun, being a name common to a whole kind or sort of individuals, as *animal, man, tree, &c.* requires an article before it, when spoken or written, to show whether that common name is meant to be applied to the whole kind, to any single one, or to some particular one or more of that kind. Observe, also, that as the indefinite article, is used to limit the noun to any *single* object, it means *one*, and cannot, therefore, with propriety, be placed before a noun, that signifies *more than one* ; we can properly say, *a horse*, but not, *a horses* ;—and that, the definite article, being used to limit the noun to the particular thing or things spoken of or referred to, has much the same meaning as *that* or *those*, and may, with equal pro-

* A verb not in the infinitive mood. *Finite* verbs are those to which number and person appertain. Verbs in the *infinitive* mood have no respect to number or person.

priety, be placed before a noun, that signifies *one*, or that signifies *more than one* ; and, therefore, we may properly say either *the horsc*, or *the horses*.

Lesson 1.—A man.—(See page 18.)

“ *A*” is an *article*.—because it is a word placed before the noun, *man*, to limit the signification of that noun ; it is an *indefinite* article,—because it merely limits the noun to any single object, but to no particular one ; and it agrees with the noun, *man*, according to *Rule 1.* (which repeat.) “ *Man*,” is a *noun*,—because it is the *name* of a thing ; and it is a *common* noun,—because it is a name common to a whole kind or sort of individuals.

Note.—Let the student parse, in the same manner, the second and each subsequent example in *Lesson 1st*, carefully giving the *reason* of every position, step by step, and referring constantly to the definitions.

Lesson 2.—A good man.—(See page 18.)

A is an indefinite article, agreeing with the noun, *man*, according to *Rule I.* (repeat the Rule.) *Good* is an *adjective*,—because it is a word *added to a noun*, to express some quality of the object signified by the noun ; it is of the positive form,—because it simply expresses the quality of the object without increase or diminution ; it is irregularly compared, as, positive *good*, comparative *better*, superlative *best* ; and it agrees with the noun, *man*, according to *Rule II.* (Repeat the rule.) *Man* is a common noun.

Note.—To prevent any confusion or embarrassment of mind, in parsing *Lessons 1st* and *2nd*, the student's attention should be called to nouns no farther than it may be necessary to enable him to understand the definition of a noun, and the distinction between proper and common nouns. In *Lessons 3rd* and *4th*, he may be made acquainted with the distinctions of Gender, Number, Person and Case ; but, as the definitions of the persons and cases of nouns cannot be fully explained and understood without the aid of the verb, the nouns, in these lessons, may all be considered as of the third person, and in the nominative or possessive case ;—deferring a full explanation of the first and second persons, and of the objective case till the next following lesson.

Lesson 3d.—Cicero, the Roman orator.

Cicero is a *proper* noun, because it is a name *appropriated* to an individual ; it is of the *masculine* gender, because it denotes a *male* ; of the *singular* number, because it expresses but *one* object ; of the third person, and nominative case, and is thus declined,—*Nom.* Cicero, *Poss.* Cicero's, *Obj.* Cicero. *The* is the definite article, agreeing with the noun, orator, according to *Rule I.* (which repeat.) *Roman* is an adjective, of the positive form, and agrees with orator, according to *Rule II.* (which repeat.) *Orator* is a common noun,—*Nom.* Orator, *Poss.* Orator's, *Obj.* Orator ; it is of the masculine gender, singular number, third person, and nominative case, agreeing with Cicero, according to *Rule III.* (Repeat the rule.)

Lesson 4.—John's hat.

John's is a proper noun, of the masculine gender, singular number, third person, *possessive* case, and governed by the noun, *hat*, according to *Rule IV.* (which repeat.) *Hat* is a common noun, of the *neuter* gender, singular number, third person, nominative case, and is thus declined. (*Decline the noun.*)

Lesson 5.—*I walk.*

I is a *pronoun*, because it is a word used for a noun ; it is a *personal* pronoun, because it is used to express the distinctions of *person* ; and is thus declined, (*decline the pronoun in the first person,*) of the singular number, because it expresses but *one* object ; of the *first* person, because it denotes the *speaker* ; and in the nominative case, because it is the subject of the verb, *walk*, according to Rule V. (*which repeat.*) *Walk* is an *active verb*, because it is a word which expresses *action* ; it is *intransitive*, because it denotes that kind of action, which is limited to the agent or subject ; it is of the *indicative* mood, because it simply *indicates* or declares the action ; of the *present* tense, because it denotes an event in *present* time ; (*decline it in the present tense ;*) of the *singular* number and *first* person, agreeing with its nominative case, *I*, according to Rule VII. (*Repeat the rule.*)

Lesson 6.—*Good Master, save us.*

Good is an adjective ; of the positive form ; irregularly compared, as positive *good*, comparative *better*, superlative *best* ; and agrees with *master* according to Rule II. (*which repeat.*) *Master* is a common noun ; of the masculine gender, and singular number ; of the *second* person, because it denotes the person *spoken to* ; and in the nominative case independent, according to Rule VI. (*Repeat the rule.*) *Save* is an *active-transitive* verb, because it denotes an action as *passing* from the subject, *thou*, (understood,) to the object, *us* ; it is of the *imperative* mood, because it commands, exhorts, or *treats* ; (*decline it ;*) of the singular number, and second person, agreeing with its nominative case, *thou*, understood,—according to Rule VII. (*which repeat.*) *Us* is a personal pronoun ; (*decline it ;*) of the plural number, first person ; and in the *objective* case, because it denotes the object of the active-transitive verb, *save*, which governs it according to Rule VIII. (*Repeat the rule.*)

Lesson 9.—*The righteous man, who feareth God, hateth iniquity.*

The is the definite article, agreeing with the noun, *man*, according to Rule I. (*which repeat.*) *Righteous* is an adjective of the positive form, (*compare it.*) and agrees with *man*, according to Rule II. (*which repeat.*) *Man* is a common noun of the masculine gender, singular number, third person, and is in the nominative case, subject of the verb, *hateth*, according to Rule V. (*which repeat.*) *Who* is a *relative* pronoun, because it *relates* or refers to the *antecedent*, *man*, with which it agrees in gender, number and person, according to Rule IX. (*Repeat the rule.*) *Who* is thus declined, *Nom.* Who, *Poss.* Whose, *Obj.* Whom, and is in the nominative case, subject of the verb, *feareth*, according to Rule V. (*which repeat.*) *Feareth*, is a *regular*, active-transitive verb, present *I fear*, imperfect *I feared*, perfect participle *feared* ; in the indicative mood, present tense, singular number, and third person, agreeing with its nominative case, *who*, according to Rule VII. (*which repeat.*) *God* is a proper noun, of the masculine gender, singular number, third person and objective case, governed by the active-transitive verb, *feareth*, according to Rule VIII. (*which repeat.*) *Hateth* is a regular, active-transitive verb, (*conjugate it,*) in the indicative mood, present tense, singular number, and third person, agreeing with its nominative case, *man*, according to Rule VII. (*Repeat the rule.*) *Iniquity*, is a common noun, of the neuter gender, singular number, third person, and objective case, governed by the active-transitive verb, *hateth*, according to Rule VIII. (*Repeat the Rule.*)

Lesson 10.—The dog pursuing the track, they overtook him.

The is the definite article, agreeing with the noun, *dog*, according to Rule I. (*which repeat.*) *Dog* is a common noun, (*decline it.*) of the masculine gender, singular number, third person, and in the nominative case absolute, joined with the participle, *pursuing*, according to Rule X. (*Repeat the Rule.*) *Pursuing* is a present participle derived from the verb, *pursue*, present participle *pursuing*, perfect *pursued*, compound perfect *having pursued*, and refers to the noun, *dog*, with which it agrees according to rule XI. (*Repeat the rule.*) *The* is the definite article, agreeing with *track* according to rule I. (*Repeat the rule.*) *Track* is a common noun, (*decline it*) of the neuter gender, singular number, third person, and in the objective case, governed by the participle, *pursuing*, according to rule XII. (*Which repeat.*) *They* is a personal pronoun, of the plural number, third person, (*decline it.*) and in the nominative case subject of the verb, *overtook*, according to rule V. (*which repeat.*) *Overtook* is an irregular, active-transitive verb, present I *overtake*, imperfect *I overtook*, perfect participle *overtaken*, in the indicative mood, *imperfect* tense, because it denotes an event in past time, plural number and third person, agreeing with its nominative case, *they*, according to rule VII, (*which repeat.*) *Him* is a personal pronoun, of the masculine gender, singular number, third person, and in the objective case, governed by the active transitive verb, *overtook*, according to Rule VIII. (*Repeat the Rule.*)

Lesson 21.—We are often below our wishes, and above our deserts.

We is a personal pronoun of the plural number, first person, and nominative case, subject of the verb, *are*, according to Rule V. *Are* is an irregular, *neuter* verb; (*conjugate it*;) it expresses *neither* action nor passion, but simply being or existence; and is in the indicative mood, present tense, plural number and first person, agreeing with its nominative case, *we*, according to rule VII. *Often* is an *adverb*, because it is a word, *added to the verb, are*, which it modifies according to Rule XVII. *Below* is a *preposition*, because it is a word *put before* the noun, *wishes*, to show a relation between that noun and the verb *are*. *Our* is a *possessive adjective pronoun*, because it is a *pronoun*, denoting *possession* and *added*, like an adjective, to the noun, *wishes*, with which it agrees according to Rule XIII. *Wishes* is a common noun, of the neuter gender, plural number, third person and in the *objective* case, because it denotes the *object* of the relation expressed by the preposition, *below*, which governs it according to Rule XXI. *And* is a *conjunction*, because it is a word used to connect the sentence, (*we are often*) *above our deserts*, to the sentence, *we are often below our wishes*; it is a *copulative* conjunction, because it connects the sentences and continues the sense by expressing an addition, and it connects the verb *are*, (*understood*) in the latter sentence, to the verb, *are*, in the former, according to Rule XIV. *Above* is a preposition, showing a relation between *deserts* and *are* understood; *our* is a possessive adjective pronoun, agreeing with *deserts* according to Rule XIII. *Deserts* is a common noun of the neuter gender, plural number, third person, and in the objective case, governed by the preposition, *above*, according to Rule XXI.

Note.—The object of parsing in the manner exemplified in the preceding specimens is two-fold;—1st, to make the learner understand the meaning of the Etymological definitions, and the application of the rules of Syntax; and 2nd, to impress them forcibly upon his memory. This mode of parsing should, therefore, be continued until these objects are fully attained; after that, the common method, being shorter, will be found more convenient.

RULES.

I.—Articles must agree with the nouns, which they limit or define.

II.—Adjectives must agree with the nouns, which they qualify.

Exercises in Parsing.

Lesson 1—A man.* A book. A garden. A tree. A bird. A chair. A table. An apple. An eagle. An orange. An hour. An honour. An herb. A hill. A hand. A house. The man. The book. The garden. The tree. The bird. The houses. The fields. The river. The mountain.—The meadows. The chairs. The table. The tables.—The hills. The apples.—London. Man. Book. Virtue. Boston. Albany. Animal. Fruit. Paper. George. Thomas. Rachel. Vice. D. p. v. ty. America. Europe. Bird. Tree. Rebecca. Honesty. Benevolence.

Lesson 2—A good man. A sweet apple. A bitter herb. A bad pen. A wise head. A great house. A small bird. A large horse. A tall tree. A happy parent. A fragrant flower. The verdant fields. Shady trees. Composed thoughts. The whistling winds. An affable deportment. A diligent scholar. An obedient son. An historical fiction. Rapid streams. Delicious fruit. A better world.—A more amiable girl. The most delightful prospect. The next town. The latest arrival. The least noise. The most study. A cheerful good old man. A resolution, wise, noble, disinterested. A most wicked plot. The most heinous crime. A tea kettle. An ink stand.—A silver tankard. A mahogany book case.

* See "Specimens of Parsing," page 15.

OF THE ARTICLES.

An *Article* is a word, placed before nouns to their signification. . . There are two articles, *a* and *the*.

A is called the *indefinite* article,—because it limits the noun to any single object, but to no particular; as, "Give me *a* book."

Note.—*A* becomes *an*, when the following word begins with a vowel or a silent *h*; as, *an* acorn, *an* hour.

The is called the *definite* article,—because it limits the noun to the particular object, or objects specified or referred to; as, "Give me *the* book."

Note.—A noun, without any article to limit it, is generally taken in its widest sense; thus *man* means all *mankind*.

OF ADJECTIVES.

An *Adjective* is a word added to a noun, to express some quality or circumstance.

Adjectives have three degrees or forms of comparison, the *Positive*, *Comparative* and, *Superlative*.

The *Positive* form simply expresses the quality of an object, without increase or diminution, as *wise*.

The *Comparative* form increases or lessens the quality in signification, as *wiser*, *less wise*.

The *Superlative* form increases or lessens the quality to the highest or lowest degree; as, *wisest*, *least*.

Comparison of Adjectives.

Adjectives of one syllable are generally compared by adding *r* or *er*, and *st* or *est* to the *Positive*; as

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Wise,	wiser,	wisest.
Great,	greater,	greatest.

Adjectives of two or more syllables are generally compared by prefixing the adverbs, *more* and *less* and *least* to the *positive*; as,

Fragrant,	more fragrant,	most fragrant
Amiable,	less amiable,	least amiable

But some adjectives are irregularly compared

Good,	better,	best.
Bad,	worse,	worst.
Little,	less,	least.
Many or much,	more,	most.
Near,	nearer,	nearest or
Late,	later,	latest or

OF NOUNS.

A *Noun* is the name of any thing. . . Nouns are either *Proper* or *Common*.

A *Proper* noun is a name appropriated to an individual; as, *George*, *Thomas*.

A *Common* noun is a name common to a whole or sort of individuals; as, *man*, *book*, *tree*.

To NOUNS belong

RULES.

Gender, Number, Person, and Case.

GENDER is the distinction of Nouns with regard to sex . . . There are three genders, the Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter.

Nouns, which denote Males, are of the *Masculine* gender ; as, a *man*, a *boy*.

Nouns, which denote Females, are of the *Feminine* gender ; as, a *woman*, a *girl*.

Nouns, which denote *neither* Males nor Females, are of the *Neuter* gender ; as, a *book*, a *pen*.

NUMBER is the distinction of nouns with regard to the objects signified, as *one* or *more*. . . Nouns are of two numbers, the Singular and Plural.

The *Singular* number expresses but *one* object ; as, a *chair*, a *table*.

The *Plural* number signifies *more* objects than one ; as, *chairs*, *tables*.

Note.—The Plural number of nouns is generally formed by adding *s* to the singular ; but when the singular ends in *x*, *ch*, *soft sh*, *s*, or *ss*, the plural is formed by adding *es*. If the singular ends in *ch* hard, the plural is formed by adding *s* only.

PERSON is the distinction of nouns with regard to their character, as names of the persons *speaking*, *spoken to*, and *spoken of*. . . There are three persons, the First, Second and Third.

The *First* person denotes the person *speaking*.

The *Second* denotes the person *spoken to*.

The *third* denotes the person *spoken of*.

CASE is the distinction of nouns with regard to their state, and relation to other words, in a sentence. . . Nouns are of three cases, the Nominative, Possessive, and Objective.

The *Nominative* case denotes the agent, or subject of the verb ; as, *John* walks.

The *Possessive* case denotes the relation of property or *possession* ; as, *John's* hat.

Note.—The possessive case of nouns is generally formed by adding an apostrophe with the letter *s*, to the nominative ; but when the plural terminates in *s*, and sometimes also when the singular terminates in *ss*, the apostrophe only is added in forming the possessive.

The *Objective* case denotes the *object* of an action, or of a relation ; as, *John* strikes *Thomas* ; he resides in *London*.

Declension of Nouns.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Nom.	A Mother.	Mothers.	The Man.	The Men.
Poss.	A Mother's.	Mothers'.	The Man's.	The Men's.
Obj.	A Mother.	Mothers.	The Man.	The Men.

III.—Two or more nouns, signifying the same thing, must agree in case.

IV.—One noun governs another, signifying a different thing, in the possessive case.

Exercises in Parsing.

Lesson 3.—Jacob. Mary. Ruth. Baltimore. Joseph. Happiness. A grammar. A brother. A mother. A niece. A master. A son. An actor. A daughter. A pen. A prime. A tutor. A box. A church. A wash. Belanes. Glasses. The monarch. A widow. A man-servant. A poet. A hen-sparrow. Female attendants. A batoness. A male child. Men. Women. An ornament. A sister. A bridegroom. Houses. Boys. Children. Parents. Girls. Paul, the Apostle. Washington, the President. George, the king. Cicero, the Roman orator. Shakespeare, the dramatic poet.

Lesson 4.—John's hat. Peter's cane. Jacob's ladder. Job's comforters. Cicero's orations. Caesar's commentaries. An apothecary's shop. An eagle's wing. A horse's bridle. The scholar's duty. The ship's masts. The tree's leaves. The grocers' company. Virtue's fair form. Life's gay variety. The rich man's wealth. Philip, Macedon's warlike king. The prophetess' prediction. The rainbow's variegated hues. Ramsay's American Revolution. Peter's wife's mother. Bishop Hobart's excellent treasure. Sir Isaac Newton's discovery. The miser's god. A painter's brush. Conscience's sake. John's brother's child.—Murray, the English grammarian's book. Mrs. Willard's young ladies' Academy.

RULES.

V.—When a noun or pronoun is the subject of a verb, it must be in the nominative case.

VI.—When an address is made, the noun or pronoun is in the nominative case independent.

Exercises in Parsing.

Lesson 5.—Love thou. Love ye. I love. Thou lovest. He loves. She loves. It loves. We love. Ye love. They love. I walk. Thou walkest.—He walks. She walketh. We walk. You walk. Men walk. A man labours. A boy plays.—Girls dance. Rain descends. The crowd retires. We talk. A dog barks. The flowers blossom. Smoke ascends.—Walk thou. Retire ye. We frown. You sigh.—He laughs. She smiles.—They breathe. The evening approaches. The coach departed. The mail arrives. Depart thou.—Repent ye. I repent.—They repeat. He repeats.

Lesson 6.—Love thou virtue. Love ye the truth. I love thee. Thou lovest them. He loves her. We love him. Ye love us.—They love me. I loved it. Thou lovedst them. He loved her. Harriet loved Eliza. Cæsar conquered Pompey. Brutus killed Cæsar. John baptized Jesus. I shall finish the letter. They performed the task. Love thou knowledge. Love ye wisdom's precepts. Hate iniquity. Remember the sabbath day. Avoid bad company. Peter, lovest thou me? Boys, study the lesson. General, thou wilt return victorious. Judas betrayest thou me? Father, pity them. Good Master, save us. Henry, you will injure him. John will you instruct James?

OF PRONOUNS.

A *Pronoun* is a word used for or instead of a noun. Pronouns are of three kinds, *Personal*, *Relative* and *Adjective*.

I. *Personal Pronouns* are such as express the distinctions of person. . . They are *I* ; *thou* ; and *he*, *she* with their plurals, *we* ; *ye* or *you* ; and *they*.

Note.—*I* stands for the name of the person speaking, and notes the first person ; *thou* stands for the name of the person spoken to, and denotes the second person ; and *he*, *she* stand for the name of the person or thing spoken of, and note the third person.

*Declension of Personal Pronouns.***FIRST PERSON**

Singular. Plural

Note.—Personal pronouns, like nouns, admit of *gender*, *number*, *person*, and *case* ; but gender respects only the third person singular ; thus

SECOND PERSON

<i>Nom.</i>	Thou.	Ye, or
<i>Poss.</i>	Thine,	Your
<i>Obj.</i>	Thee ;	You.

THIRD PERSON

He is masculine,

<i>Nom.</i>	He,	They.
<i>Poss.</i>	His,	Their
<i>Obj.</i>	Him ;	Them

She is feminine,

<i>Nom.</i>	She,	They.
<i>Poss.</i>	Hers,	Their
<i>Obj.</i>	Her ;	Them

It is neuter.

<i>Nom.</i>	It.	They.
<i>Poss.</i>	Its.	Their
<i>Obj.</i>	It ;	Them

OF VERBS.

A *Verb* is a word which signifies *To Be*, *To Do*, *To Suffer*. . . Verbs are of three kinds, *Active*, *Passive*, and *Neuter*.

I. *Active verbs* express *action*, and are either *transitive* or *intransitive*.

An *active-transitive verb* denotes an action that passes from the agent to some object ; as, "Cain smote Cæsar conquered Pompey."

An *active-intransitive verb* denotes that kind of action which is limited to the agent ; as, "John wept. Thomas runs."

To verbs belong

RULES.

Mood, Tense, Number and Person.

Mood is the *manner* of expressing the signification of the verb. . . . There are five moods the *Imperative, Indicative, Subjunctive, Potential, and Infinitive.*

Tense is the distinction of *time*. . . . Its grand divisions are the *present, past, and future*, denoted by the *Present, Imperfect, and First Future Tenses* ; but, to mark the time of the verb more accurately, we also use the *Perfect, Pluperfect, and Second Future* tenses.

Verbs have two *numbers* and three *persons*, in each number, to agree with nouns and pronouns, in those respects. The *number* and *person* of a verb are therefore always the same, as those of its nominative case.

The *conjugation* of a verb is the regular combination and arrangement of its several moods, tenses, numbers, and persons.

Conjugation of the Active Verb, Love.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

The *Imperative* mood *commands, exhorts, or intreats*. It is the simplest form of the verb, and has no distinction of tense ; as,

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 2. Love, love thou, <i>or</i> do
thou love. | 2. Love, love ye <i>or</i> you,
<i>or</i> do ye <i>or</i> you love. |
|--|--|

INDICATIVE MOOD.

The *Indicative* mood simply *indicates* or *declares* an action.

Present Tense.

The *Present* tense denotes an event in *present* time ; as,

- | | |
|---|---------------------------|
| 1. I love, | 1. We love, |
| 2. Thou lovest, | 2. Ye <i>or</i> you love, |
| 3. He, she, <i>or</i> it loves,
<i>or</i> loveth ; | 3. They love. |

Imperfect Tense.

The *Imperfect* tense denotes an event in *past* time. . .

It is generally formed by adding *d* or *ed* to the present ; as,

- | | |
|------------------|----------------|
| 1. I loved, | 1. We loved, |
| 2. Thou lovedst, | 2. Ye loved, |
| 3. He loved, | 3. They loved. |

First Future Tense.

The *First Future* tense denotes an event in *future* time.

It is formed by prefixing the auxiliary, *shall* or *will*, to the present tense ; as,

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. I shall or will love, | 1. We shall or will love, |
| 2. Thou wilt or shalt love, | 2. Ye will or shall love, |
| 3. He will or shall love ; | 3. They will or shall love. |

VII.—A verb must agree with its nominative case, in the number and person.

VIII.—Active transitive verbs govern the objective case.

Exercises in Parsing.

Lesson 7.—Exercise promotes health. The word *noun*, signifies a name. I travelled. You walked. They danced. Newton studied astronomy. Paul preached the gospel. The mail departed. Thou repentest. He repenteth. The dog will bark. The prisoner will escape. I shall depart. Smoke will ascend. Thou wilt repent. Thou shalt walk. I will play. I shall finish the letter. They shall perform the task. You will laugh. It shall live. They will frown. It will approach. Thou wilt wander. A ship sails. The sea rages. You encourage us.

Lesson 8.—I shall walk. Thou wilt walk. He will walk. We shall walk.—Ye will walk. They will walk.—I will walk. Thou shalt walk. He shall walk. We will walk. Ye shall walk. They shall walk.—The troops will march.—Hope flattered us. Money betrays its possessor. You shall submit. I purchased a library. I instruct thou him. Save thyself. He resigned himself. We shall recite the lesson. The accident happened. Follow him. Conjugate an active verb. Truth ennobles her. She comforted us. They will support me. Rachael mourned. Active-transitive verbs govern the objective case. We study Murray's English grammar. Caesar subjugated many nations. Hannibal invaded the Roman empire. Regulus defeated the Carthaginians.

RULES.

OF PRONOUNS.—continued.

IX.—Pronouns must agree with their antecedents and the nouns for which they stand, in gender, number, and person.

X.—A noun or pronoun, joined with a participle and standing independent on the rest of the sentence, is in the nominative case absolute.

Exercises in Parsing.

Lesson 9.—The righteous man, who feareth God, hateth iniquity. The fellow, whom we met, insulted us. The dog, which I bought, has bitten me.—The house, that you built, has decayed. The letter that he wrote, miscarried. He that received me, receiveth him that sent me. The prisoners, who broke jail, have returned. The flowers, that you have planted, smell sweet. I know what you want. I understand what you say. Whose books have you found? Whose desk do you occupy? Who shall declare it? Whom have we served?

Lesson 10.—The sun arising, the clouds disappear. The sun having arisen, the clouds dispersed. The storm increasing, they returned. A light snow having fallen, he discovered the thief. The dog pursuing the track, they overtook him. Charles discovering the cheat, James departed. He having obtained an election, the crowd retired. I had written a letter. Thou hadst obtained the victory. He had made a decree. We had finished the task. You had recited the lesson. They had denied the truth. I had walked. Thou hadst travelled. He had seen the man. The ship had sailed. The mail had arrived. The court had adjourned.

II. *Relative Pronouns* are such as relate, in general, to some preceding word or phrase, called the *Antecedent*. . . They are *Who*, *Which*, and *That*.

What is a kind of compound relative, including both the antecedent and the relative; and is equivalent to *that, which*.

Who is applied to persons; *which*, to animals and inanimate things; *that*, to persons or things.

Who is of both numbers and is thus declined. $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Nom. Who.} \\ \text{Poss. Whose.} \\ \text{Obj. Whom.} \end{array} \right\}$

Which, *That*, and *What* are likewise of both numbers, but do not vary their termination; except that *whose* is sometimes used as the possessive case of *which*.

When used in asking questions, *Who*, *Which*, and *What* are called *Interrogatives*.

OF VERBS.—continued.

Verbs are also divided into *Regular*, *Irregular*, and *Defective*.

Regular verbs are those, whose imperfect tense and perfect participle end in *ed*; as,

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Imperfect.</i>	<i>Perfect Part.</i>
I love,	I loved,	loved.
I favour,	I favoured,	favoured.

Irregular verbs are those, whose imperfect tense and perfect participle do not end in *ed*; as,

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Imperfect.</i>	<i>Perfect Part.</i>
I begin,	I began,	begun.
I know,	I knew,	known.

Defective verbs are those, which are used only in some of their moods and tenses; as,

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Imperfect.</i>	<i>Perfect Part.</i>
Can,	Could,	_____
May,	Might,	_____
Shall,	Should,	_____
Will,	Would,	_____
Must,	Must,	_____
Ought,	Ought,	_____
_____	Quoth,	_____

AUXILIARY VERBS.

Auxiliary Verbs are those by the help of which other verbs are principally conjugated. . . They are *do*, *be*, *have*, *shall*, *will*, *may*, *can*, with their variations, and *must*, which has no variation.

these *Auxiliary Verbs* are thus varied ;

Present Tense.

do,	am,	have,	shall,	will,	may,	can.
doest,	art,	hast,	shalt,	wilt,	may'st,	canst.
does,	is,	has,	shall,	will,	may,	can.
do,	are,	have,	shall,	will,	may,	can.
do,	are,	have,	shall,	will,	may,	can.
do,	are,	have,	shall,	will,	may,	can.

Imperfect Tense.

did,	was,	had,	should,	would,	might,	could.
didst,	wast,	hadst,	shouldst,	wouldst,	mightst,	couldst.
did,	wast,	had,	should,	would,	might,	could.
did,	were,	had,	should,	would,	might,	could.
did,	were,	had,	should,	would,	might,	could.
did,	were,	had,	should,	would,	might,	could.

Participles.

es. doing, being, having ; *Perf.* done, been, had.

OF PARTICIPLES.

The *Participle* is a certain form of the verb, and denotes name from its *participating* of the properties of a verb and of an adjective. . . . Sometimes it is used as a noun. There are three participles, the *Present*, *Perfect*, and *Compound Perfect* ; as,

Present, Loving. *Perfect*, Loved,

Compound Perfect, Having Loved.

Conjugation of the Verb Love,—continued.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Perfect Tense.

The *Perfect* tense denotes an event in past time, and says an allusion to the present.

is formed by prefixing the auxiliary, *have*, to the perfect participle ; as,

Singular.

I have loved,
Thou hast loved,
He has or hath loved,

Plural.

1. We have loved,
2. Ye have loved,
3. They have loved.

Pluperfect Tense.

The *Pluperfect* Tense denotes an event as past prior to some other past event.

is formed by prefixing the auxiliary, *had*, to the perfect participle ; as,

I had loved,
Thou hadst loved,
He had loved ;

1. We had loved.
2. Ye had loved,
3. They had loved.

Second Future Tense.

The *Second Future* Tense denotes an event as future, prior to some other future event.

is formed by prefixing the auxiliaries, *shall have*, or *will* to the perfect participle ; as,

shall have loved,
Thou wilt have loved,
He will have loved ;

1. We shall have loved,
2. Ye will have loved,
3. They will have loved.

RULES.

XI.—Participles agree like adjectives, with the nouns, to which they refer.

XII.—Participles have the same government as the verbs, from which they are derived.

Exercises in Parsing.

Lesson 11.—The sun, having arisen, dispersed the clouds. The dog, pursuing the track, overtook the thief. Charles, having discovered the cheat, pursued James. Having finished the letter, he despatched it. Having obtained license, he commenced preaching. Seeing the multitude, he pitied them. Having resigned the office, he retired. I shall have walked. Thou wilt have repented. He will have written the letter. We shall have finished the task. You will complete the journey. They will have found it. The mail will have arrived. The coach will have passed.

Lesson 12.—Awake thou. Arise ye. Do thou fear God. Do ye instruct him. I know them.—Thou seest it. He saw us. We said it. They have eaten fruit. Thou hast beaten him. James has found John's knife. Caesar had defeated Pompey's troops. Thou hadst told the truth. The dogs had discovered the wolf's den. I will relate the story. Thou shalt see the king's face. They will detect the falsehood. I shall have seen him. Thou wilt have found her. James will have eaten the apple.—Practise virtue. Who has seen him? What hast thou found? Which have they chosen? The man, whom thou sawest, stole the coat. Eliza will have written Harriet's letter. I shall have seen the young man's father.

RULES,

OF PRONOUNS.—continued.

XIII.—Adjective pronouns must agree, in number, with the nouns, to which they belong.

XIV.—Conjunctions connect the same cases of nouns and pronouns; and generally, the same moods and tenses of verbs.

Exercises in Parsing.

Lesson 13.—His vices have weakened his mind. Your conduct met their approbation.—Each pupil answered the question. This unconth figure startled him. That man has violated his country's laws. They have searched those rooms.—His esteem honours those who possess it. Every heart knows its own sorrows. All men have sinned. What pleases one man, displeases another. Some have received applause. Others have deserved it. Such enjoy their own approbation. Amelia charms some; she disgusts others. Her voice delights every one. The boy wounded the old bird; he stole the young ones.

Lesson 14. I saw him and her. We favoured you and them. He deceived me and thee. They love and obey him. We fear and reverence God. He discovered and seized the thief. Fear God, and honor him. Love and practise virtue. I had written and sealed the letter. He will detect and expose you. I will perform the operation, if he desires it. I will perform the operation, if he desire it. She shall return, if she desire it. He shall die, unless he repent. I will respect him, though he slay me. She will amend, if you encourage her. If thou betray us, thou shalt die. None knew his business. Pity another's wo.

III. *Adjective Pronouns* are such as participate properties both of adjectives and pronouns. . . . are divided into four sorts, viz. *Possessive*, *Distributive*, and *Indefinite*.

1. The *Possessive* adjective pronouns are those, relate to possession or property. . . . They are *thy, his, her, our, your, their*.
2. The *Distributive* adjective pronouns are those, denote the persons or things, that make up a nu as taken separately and singly. . . . They are *every, either, neither*.
3. The *Demonstrative* adjective pronouns are which precisely point out the subjects, to they relate. . . . They are *this, that, these, former, latter*.
4. The *Indefinite* adjective pronouns are those, express their subjects in a general or an indi manner. . . . They are *all, any, one, none, othe other, some, such*.

One and *other* are thus declined.

Sing.	Plu.	Sing.	Pl
Nom. One,	Ones,	Nom. Other,	Othe
Poss. One's	Ones',	Poss. Other's,	Othe
Obj. One;	Ones.	Obj. Other;	Othe

OF CONJUNCTIONS.

A *Conjunction* is a part of speech, that is chiefly to connect sentences; so as out of two or more sen' to make but one. It sometimes connects only v

Conjunctions are principally divided into two the *Copulative* and the *Disjunctive*.

The *Conjunction Copulative* serves to conne continue a sentence by expressing an addition, a sition, a cause, &c. as "He *and* his brother res London; I will go, *if* he will accompany me; yo happy, *because* you are good."

The *Conjunction Disjunctive* serves not only t nect and continue the sentence, but also to expres position of meaning in different degrees; as. "7. he was frequently reprov'd, *yet* he did not re they came with her, *but* they went away without

The following is a list of the principal conjunctions.

Copulative. And, if, that, both, then, since, for, b therefore, wherefore.

Disjunctive. But, or, nor, as, than, less, though, either, neither, yet, notwithstanding.

OF VERBS.

RULES.

Conjugation of the Verb, Love,—continued.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

The *Subjunctive Mood* expresses the action, being, mission in a doubtful or conditional manner. . . . It is preceded by a conjunction, expressed or understood, *subjoined* to another verb ;—as, “ I will perform my duty, *if* he *desires* it ; I will respect him, *if* he *slay* me.”

1st.—In the second and third persons, singular, of the present tense of verbs generally, this mood has two forms ; the first or indicative form is like that of the indicative mood, except the preceding conjunction ;—as, *If thou lovest, If he loves* ;—the second or conjunctive form retains the termination of the first person singular ;—as, *If I love, If thou love, If he loves*.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
I love,	1. If we love,
thou lovest, or love,	2. If ye love,
he loves, or love ;	3. If they love.

Imperfect Tense.

I loved,	1. If we loved,
thou lovedst,	2. If ye loved,
he loved ;	3. If they loved.

Perfect Tense.

I have loved,	1. If we have loved,
thou hast loved,	2. If ye have loved,
he has loved ;	3. If they have loved.

Pluperfect Tense.

I had loved,	1. If we had loved,
thou hadst loved,	2. If ye had loved,
he had loved ;	3. If they had loved.

First Future Tense.

I shall or will love,	1. If we shall or will love,
thou wilt or shalt love,	2. If ye will or shall love,
he will or shall love ;	3. If they will or shall love.

Second Future Tense.

I shall have loved,	1. If we shall have loved,
thou shalt* have loved,	2. If ye shall* have loved,
he shall* have loved ;	3. If they shall* have loved.

2d.—The conjunction, *if*, is used in the above conjugation for the sake of brevity ; but any other conjunction, expressing doubt, condition, &c. as, *though, whether, unless, except*, &c. may be used with equal propriety.

The auxiliaries, *will, shall*, are not properly used in the first future tense of the Subjunctive Mood.

XV.—A verb, agreeing with two or more nouns or pronouns singular, connected by a *copulative* conjunction, must be in the plural number.

XVI.—A verb, agreeing with two or more nouns or pronouns singular, connected by a *disjunctive* conjunction, must be in the singular number.

Exercises in Parsing.

Lesson 15.—John and James have seen him. Patience and diligence remove temptations. He and she have recited the lesson. Mary and Eliza love dancing. Thomas and Joseph study grammar. Industry and economy have made him rich. If thou hast sinned, confess it. He shall return the watch, if he has found it. The master will punish thee, if thou hast told a falsehood. He shall reward thee, if thou wilt inform him. The plan will fail, unless he shall have returned. If thou knowest thy duty, perform it.

Lesson 16.—John or James has seen him. Ignorance or negligence has caused this mistake. Thomas or Joseph studies grammar. He or she knows it. Mary or Eliza loves dancing. He or she has spoken the truth. Jane or Harriet has taken the apple. He or she will write the letter, if John desires it. Charles shall receive a reward, if he shall have written the letter. Peter will receive nothing, unless he study the lesson. Have you seen the governor's proclamation ? If thou lovest thy neighbour, thou obeyest the law. Promoting others' welfare, they advanced their own interest. Though he has lost his estate, he preserves his character untarnished.

RULES.

XVII.—Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives and other adverbs.

XVIII.—The infinitive mood, or part of a sentence, is sometimes used as the nominative case to a verb.

Exercises in Parsing.

Lesson 17.—I can see clearly. Thou canst write well. He may come soon. We must go immediately. She dances elegantly. It moves slowly. I have seen him once. He walks backward. Come hither. She sings sweetly. Thou sayest truly. Time flies swiftly. He writes a very good letter. She treated us very kindly. You might assist us daily.—Thou couldst speak fluently. He would talk incessantly. They should return to-day. I may have acted unjustly. He must have spoken rashly. She might have written better. We could have punished him then. They would have gone instantly.

Lesson 18.—To write well requires practice. To walk much will fatigue you. To slander one's neighbour indicates a bad heart. To have remained there would have ruined the army. To have denied his master caused Peter's remorse. To have pleased him would have gratified me. Rising early and walking abroad improved his health. We often resolve, but seldom perform. When will they arrive? Where shall we stop? Thirdly and lastly, I shall conclude. He went out, and immediately departed. If he has promised, he should act accordingly. Peradventure he may repent. I might have gone, if he had not ungenerously refused to give his consent. He can read well. She can write very correctly.

OF ADVERBS.

An *Adverb* is a word used to modify the signification of verbs, adjectives, and sometimes of other adverbs, as, "He reads well, a *truly* good man, he writes *correctly*." Some adverbs are compared like adjectives; as, *soon, sooner, soonest; wisely, more most wisely; well, better, best*.

Adverbs, though very numerous, may be reduced to certain classes;—as,

1. Of *Number*; as, "Once, twice, thrice," &c.
2. Of *Order*; as, "First, secondly, thirdly, finally," &c.

3. Of *Place*; as, "Here, there, where, elsewhere, anywhere, somewhere, nowhere, herein, therein, whither, upward, downward, forward, backward, hence, thence, whence, whensoever, wheresoever, whithersoever," &c.

4. Of *Time*; as, "Now, to-day, yesterday, before, heretofore, hitherto, lately, long since, long ago, to-morrow, not yet, hereafter, henceforth, hereinafter, by and by, instantly, presently, immediately, straightway, oft, often, oftentimes, sometimes, soon, seldom, daily, weekly, monthly, always, then, ever, never, again," &c.

5. Of *Quantity*; as, "Much, little, sufficiently, much, how great, enough, abundantly," &c.

6. Of *Manner or Quality*; as, "Wisely, foolishly, justly, unjustly, quickly, slowly, badly, ably, ably," &c.

7. Of *Doubt*; as, "Perhaps, peradventure, perchance," &c.

8. Of *Affirmation*; as, "Verily, truly, undoubtedly, doubtless, certainly, yea, yes, surely, indeed, verily," &c.

9. Of *Negation*; as, "Nay, no, not, by no means, not at all, in no wise," &c.

10. Of *Interrogation*; as, "How, why, when, whether," &c.

11. Of *Comparison*; as, "More, most, better, worse, worst, less, least, very, almost, little, alike,

OF VERBS.

Conjugation of the Verb, Love,—continued

POTENTIAL MOOD.

The *Potential* mood expresses the *power or possibility*, liberty, will or obligation of acting, being, or doing; as, "I *can* ride, it *may* rain, he *may* go or he *would* walk, they *should* learn."

Present Tense.

Present tense of the *Potential* mood is formed by prefixing the auxiliary, *may, can, or must*, to the as,

Singular.

I, *can, or must love,* 1. *We may, can, or must love,*
a mayst, canst, or must 2. *Ye may, can, or must love,*
 , 3. *They may, can, or must*
may, can, or must love; *love.*

Plural.

Imperfect Tense.

Imperfect tense of the *Potential* mood is formed by prefixing the auxiliary, *might, could, would, or should*, verb; as,

ght, could, would or 1. *We might, could, would, or*
ld love, *should love,*
u mightst, couldst, 2. *Ye might, could, would, or*
ldst, or shouldst love, *should love,*
ght, could, would, or 3. *They might, could, would,*
ld love ; *or should love.*

Perfect Tense.

Perfect tense of the *Potential* mood is formed by prefixing the auxiliaries, *may have, can have, or must* to the perfect participle; as,

y, can, or must have 1. *We may, can, or must have*
l, *loved,*
a mayst, canst, or must 2. *Ye may, can, or must have*
loved, *loved,*
ay, can, or must have 3. *They may, can or must have*
l ; *loved.*

Pluperfect Tense.

Pluperfect tense of the *Potential* mood is formed by prefixing the auxiliaries, *might have, could have, would* or *should have*, to the perfect participle; as,

ght, could, would, or 1. *We might, could, would, or*
ld have loved, *should have loved,*
u mightst, couldst, 2. *Ye might, could, would, or*
ldst, or shouldst, have *should have loved,*
 , 3. *They might, could, would,*
ght, could, would, or *or should have loved.*
ld have loved ;

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Infinitive mood expresses the action, being, or in a general manner, *unlimited* by any distinction of number or person.

Present tense is formed by prefixing the sign, *to*, to the and the *Perfect*, by prefixing the sign, *to*, and the auxiliary, to the perfect participle; as,

esent, To love. *Perfect, To have loved.*

RULES.

XIX.—The infinitive mood may be governed by a verb, noun, or adjective.

XX.—The infinitive mood is often made absolute, or used independently on the rest of the sentence.

Exercises in Parsing.

Lesson 19.—We should endeavour to please. An industrious man loves to labour. Boys love to play. He prepared to go. They, who will not sow, must not expect to reap.—You should strive to learn. He might have intended to write a letter. They expressed a desire to improve. It requires patience to study much. She appears anxious to please.—He appeared happy to hear it. We heard them striving to break their prison. Endeavouring to persuade others, he convinced himself. Suspecting them, he studied to avoid all intercourse.

Lesson 20.—To confess the truth, I could not hear him. To finish the relation, he defeated his enemies. To say the least, they behaved very indiscreetly. He might avoid going. Thou mayst recite. They may live.—Thou mightst reward him. We must have failed. I should have discovered it. She may return, if she desires it. Thou mightst have gone. I might have promised, and should have performed accordingly, if they had not prevented me. Undoubtedly he may succeed. We ought to have returned sooner. He ought to know better. Love and obey thy parents, if thou wouldst enjoy a long and prosperous life. Thou buildst the walls, that thou mayest rule the city. He studies his lesson diligently, that he may recite well.

RULE.

XXI.—Prepositions govern the objective case.

Exercises in Parsing.

Lesson 21.—He stopped at Boston. He resides in New-York. She wore a crown of gold on her head. He went to the river.— They fight for their lives. They passed by Troy.— He walks up the hill.— They sat upon the ground. She went into the house. I write with a pen. He dwells within this Town. They have gone over the river. I passed under the bridge. They travelled through France, in haste, towards Italy. On all occasions, she behaved with propriety. We look in vain for a path between virtue and vice. Without the aid of charity, he supported himself with credit. Be not wise in thy own conceit.

I am happy to see you enjoying so good health. Thou art more studious than he. She is more beautiful than her sister. We are often below our wishes, and above our deserts. Why are you so heedless? The spirit of true religion is social, kind, and cheerful. In your whole behaviour, he humble and obliging. He has certainly been diligent, and he will probably succeed. From virtue to vice, the progress is gradual. He retires to rest soon, that he may rise early. We must be temperate, if we would be healthy. Can we, untouched by gratitude, view that profusion of good, which the divine hand pours around us? There is nothing in human life more amiable and respectable, than the character of a truly humble and benevolent man. There needs no ghost come from the grave to tell us this.—

OF PREPOSITIONS.

A *Preposition* serves to connect words with one other, and to shew the relations between them. They are generally *put before* nouns and pronouns; as, "I went *from* Loudon *to* York; They were instructed *him*."

The following is a list of the principal prepositions.

At	up	above	between	around	except
in	upon	below	beneath	against	respect
of	into	after	beyond	amidst	touching
off	with	about	before	through	concerning
on	within	across	behind	throughout	instead
to	without	near	beside	towards	until
for	over	from	betwixt	except	till
by	under	down	among	athwart	but

OF VERBS.—continued.

II. A *Neuter Verb* expresses *neither* action nor passion, but simply being, or a state of being; as, "I *am*, I *stand*."

Conjugation of the Neuter Verb, Be.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

*Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|---------------------------------|----------------------------|
| 2. Be, be thou, or do thou be ; | 2. Be, or be ye, or do be. |
|---------------------------------|----------------------------|

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

- | | |
|--------------|--------------|
| 1. I am, | 1. We are, |
| 2. Thou art, | 2. Ye are, |
| 3. He is ; | 3. They are. |

Imperfect Tense.

- | | |
|---------------|---------------|
| 1. I was, | 1. We were, |
| 2. Thou wast, | 2. Ye were, |
| 3. He was ; | 3. They were. |

Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------|
| 1. I have been, | 1. We have been, |
| 2. Thou hast been, | 2. Ye have been, |
| 3. He has or hath been ; | 3. They have been. |

Pluperfect Tense.

- | | |
|---------------------|-------------------|
| 1. I had been, | 1. We had been, |
| 2. Thou hadst been, | 2. Ye had been, |
| 3. He had been ; | 3. They had been. |

First Future Tense.

- | | |
|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. I shall or will be, | 1. We shall or will be, |
| 2. Thou wilt or shalt be, | 2. Ye will or shall be, |
| 3. He will or shall be ; | 3. They will or shall be. |

Second Future Tense.

- | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. I shall have been, | 1. We shall have been, |
| 2. Thou wilt have been, | 2. Ye will have been, |
| 3. He will have been ; | 3. They will have been. |

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

te.—In the Present and Imperfect tenses of the subjunctive mood, this verb has two forms; the *first* is like that of the indicative mood, except the preceding conjunction; as, *I am, If thou art, If he is,* &c. the *second* varies from that thus,—“*If I be, If thou be, If he be,*” &c.

Present Tense.

Singular.

*I am, or be,
thou art, or be,
he is, or be;*

Plural.

1. *If we are, or be,*
2. *If ye are, or be,*
3. *If they are, or be.*

Imperfect Tense.

*I was, or were,
thou wast, or wert,
he was, or were;*

1. *If we were,*
2. *If ye were,*
3. *If they were.*

te.—The remaining tenses of this mood are similar to the correspondent tenses of the Indicative Mood; except the *I* and *thou* persons, singular and plural, of the *second* tense,—which require the auxiliary, *shall, shall,* instead of, *will.*

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

*I may or can be,
thou mayst or canst be,
he may or can be;*

1. *We may or can be,*
2. *Ye may or can be,*
3. *They may or can be.*

Imperfect Tense.

*I might, could, would, or should be,
thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst be,
he might, could, would, or should be;*

1. *We might, could, would, or should be,*
2. *Ye might, could, would or shouldst be,*
3. *They might, could, would, or should be.*

Perfect Tense.

*I may or can have been,
thou mayst or canst have been,
he may or can have been;*

1. *We may or can have been,*
2. *Ye may or can have been,*
3. *They may or can have been.*

Pluperfect Tense.

*I might, could, would, or should have been,
thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst have been,
he might, could, would or should have been;*

1. *We might, could, would or should have been,*
2. *Ye might, could, would or shouldst have been,*
3. *They might, could, would or should have been.*

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. To be.

Perfect. To have been.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. Being.

Perfect. Been.

Compound Perfect. Having been.

RULE.

XXII.—Neuter and active intransitive verbs have the same case after, as before them.

Exercises in Parsing.

Lesson 22.—*I am he whom ye seek. Nathan said unto David, thou art the man. Virtue is the universal charm. He is a man of the most temperate habits, and excellent character. An honest man is the noblest work of God. She looks a goddess, and moves a queen. Tom struts a soldier, open, bold, and brave; Will sneaks a scrivener, an exceeding knave. No man can be active in disquieting others, who does not, at the same time, disquiet himself. A life of pleasure and dissipation is an enemy to health, fortune, and character.*

She wanders an outcast. He compelled her to wander an outcast. I took it to be him. Hortensius died a martyr.

If this book is his, that is mine. These may be yours; those are ours.—Which was his choice? It was neither. Hers are finished; thine is to do.—This is what I feared.—That is the thing, which I desired. Whose books are these? They are John's. Be honest. Be not idle. If thou be honest, thou wilt receive the reward of thy honesty.—If he be not idle, he may recite soon. He would be rich, if he was industrious. Thou wouldst not be afraid, if thou wert innocent. He, who preserves me, to whom I owe my being, whose I am, and whom I serve, is eternal. It was happy for the state, that Fabius continued in the command with Minucius; the former's phlegm was a check upon the latter's vivacity.

RULE.

OF INTERJECTIONS.

XXIII.—Interjections require the objective case of the first person, but the nominative case of the second or third person after them.

Exercises in Parsing.

Lesson 23.—Ah me!—Ah the delusions of hope! O me! O thou persecutor! O ye hypocrites!—Oh! the humiliations, to which vice reduces us.—Me miserable! which way shall I fly? I have alienated my friend, alas! I fear forever.

John beats Thomas.—Thomas is beaten by John. Cain killed Abel. Abel was killed by Cain. Caesar conquered Pompey.—Pompey was conquered by Caesar. Noah built the ark. The ark was built by Noah. The horses draw the coach.—The coach is drawn by the horses.

Be thou loved. Be ye intreated. Be composed. Be not discouraged. I am loved. They are deceived. He was condemned. We have been consulted. She has been admired.—Thou hadst been detained. He shall be punished. The person will have been executed, before the pardon arrives.

I will not accept a commission, if I be elected.—If thou art hated by the vicious, thou art loved by the virtuous. If he is discarded by his enemies, he is caressed by his friends. He will prove himself innocent, though he be denounced. She was not proud, though she was rich. Though she were admired, she would not be vain. If he has been detected, he will be ruined. If he had been properly educated, he would have been appointed to the command. I shall be extremely sorry, if he shall have been executed; before the pardon arrives.

Interjections are words thrown in between the parts of a sentence, to express the passions or emotions of a speaker or writer.

Note.—Interjections are of different sorts, according to the different passions, which they serve to express. Such, as are expressive of grief or earnestness, are *O! oh! ah! alas!* of contempt, *pish! tush!* of wonder, *heigh! really! strange!* of calling, *hem! ho! soho!* of aversion or disgust, *foh! fie! away!* of a call of attention, *lo! behold! hark!* of requesting silence, *hush! hist!* of salutation, *welcome! hail! all hail! &c.* Indeed any word or phrase may become an interjection, or, at least, may be used as such, when it is expressed with emotion, and in an unconnected manner; as, *peace! ungrateful creature! folly in the extreme!*

OF VERBS—continued.

III. A *Passive Verb* expresses a passion or a suffering, or the receiving of an action; as, “*I am loved, John was beaten.*” It is conjugated by adding the perfect participle to the auxiliary verb, *be*, through all its changes of Mood, Tense, Number, and Person;—thus,

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 2. Be thou loved, or do thou be loved; | 2. Be ye or you loved, or do ye or you be loved. |
|--|--|

INDICATIVE MOOD.

- | | |
|--------------------|--------------------|
| 1. I am loved, | 1. We are loved, |
| 2. Thou art loved, | 2. Ye are loved, |
| 3. He is loved; | 3. They are loved. |

Imperfect Tense.

- | | |
|---------------------|---------------------|
| 1. I was loved, | 1. We were loved, |
| 2. Thou wast loved, | 2. Ye were loved, |
| 3. He was loved; | 3. They were loved. |

Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. I have been loved, | 1. We have been loved, |
| 2. Thou hast been loved, | 2. Ye have been loved, |
| 3. He has been loved; | 3. They have been loved. |

Pluperfect Tense.

- | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. I had been loved, | 1. We had been loved, |
| 2. Thou hadst been loved, | 2. Ye had been loved, |
| 3. He had been loved; | 3. They had been loved. |

First Future Tense.

- | | |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. I shall or will be loved, | 1. We shall or will be loved, |
| 2. Thou wilt or shalt be loved, | 2. Ye will or shall be loved, |
| 3. He will or shall be loved; | 3. They will or shall be loved. |

Second Future Tense.

- | | |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. I shall have been loved, | 1. We shall have been loved, |
| 2. Thou wilt have been loved, | 2. Ye will have been loved, |
| 3. He will have been loved; | 3. They will have been loved. |

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.
Singular. I am, or be loved,
thou art, or be loved,
he is, or be loved ;

Present Tense.

Plural. 1. If we are, or be loved,
2. If ye are, or be loved,
3. If they are, or be loved.

Imperfect Tense.

1. If we were loved,
2. If ye were loved,
3. If they were loved.
I was, or were loved,
thou wast, or wert
he was, or were loved ;

Lesson 21.—The remaining tenses of this mood are similar to the dependent tenses of the indicative mood ;—except the second and third persons, singular and plural, of the second future, which require the auxiliary, *shall*, instead of *will*.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. We may or can be loved,
2. Ye may or can be loved,
3. They may or can be loved.
I may or can be loved,
thou mayst or canst be
he may or can be loved ;

Imperfect Tense.

1. We might, could, would
or should be loved,
2. Ye might, could, would
or should be loved.
3. They might, could,
would or should be loved.
I might, could, would
should be loved ;

Perfect Tense.

1. We may or can have been loved.
2. Ye may or can have been loved.
3. They may or can have been loved.
I may or can have been loved,
thou mayst or canst
he may or can have been loved.

Pluperfect Tense.

1. We might, could, would or should have been loved.
2. Ye or you might, could, would or should have been loved.
3. They might, could, would or should have been loved.
I might, could, would or should have been loved ;

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. To be loved. *Perfect.* To have been loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. Being loved. *Perfect.* Loved.
Compound Perfect. Having been loved.

RULE.

XXIV.—Passive verbs which signify naming, and others of a similar nature, have the same case after, as before them.

Exercises in Parsing.

Lesson 21.—Homer is styled the prince of poets. He was called John. She was named Penelope.—James was created a duke. The general was saluted emperor. The professor was appointed tutor to the prince.

It can be enlarged.—You may be discovered. They must be punished.—He might be convinced.—It would be caressed.—Thou shouldst be denied. I may have been deceived. He must have been despised. They might have been honoured.

We must be virtuous, if we desire to be trusted.—He hoped to have been received into favour by the prince. Being reviled, we bless. Ridiculed, despised, and persecuted, he maintained his principles. Having been deserted, she became discouraged. He will be detected, though he deny the fact.

True philosophy, which is the ornament of our nature, consists more in the love of our duty, than in great talents and extensive knowledge. This is Paul's advice, the Christian hero and great Apostle of the Gentiles.

The power of speech is a faculty peculiar to man, and was bestowed on him by his beneficent creator, for the greatest and most excellent uses ; but alas ! how often do we pervert it to the worst of purposes !

Etymology treats of the different sorts of words, their various modifications, and their derivation.

Syntax treats of the agreement, government, and proper arrangement of words in a sentence.

PROSODY.

PROSODY consists of two parts ; the former teaches the true pronunciation of words, comprising ACCENT, QUANTITY, EMPHASIS, PAUSE, and TONE ; and the latter, the laws of VERSIFICATION.

ACCENT.

Accent is the laying of a peculiar stress of the voice on a certain letter or syllable in a word, that it may be better heard than the rest, or distinguished from them ; as, in the word *presume*, the stress of the voice must be on the letter *u*, and second syllable, *sume*, which take the accent.

QUANTITY.

The quantity of a syllable is that time, which is occupied in pronouncing it. It is considered as long or short.

A vowel or syllable is long, when the accent is on the vowel ; which occasions it to be slowly joined, in pronunciation, to the following letter ; as, " *Fall*, *båle*, *mood*, *håuse*, *feature*."

A syllable is short, when the accent is on the consonant ; which occasions the vowel to be quickly joined to the succeeding letter ; as, " *Ant*, *hånnèt*, *hånger*."

A long syllable requires double the time of a short one in pronouncing it ; thus, " *Mate*" and " *Nôte*" should be pronounced as slowly again as " *Mis*" and " *Nõt*."

EMPHASIS.

By emphasis is meant a stronger and fuller sound of voice, by which we distinguish some word, or words on which we design to lay particular stress, and to show how it affects the rest of the sentence. Sometimes the emphatic words must be distinguished by a particular tone of voice, as well as by a greater stress.

PAUSES.

Pauses or rests, in speaking and reading, are a total cessation of the voice, during a perceptible and, in many cases, a measurable space of time.

TONES.

Tones are different both from emphasis and pauses ; consisting in the modulation of the voice, the notes or variations of sound which we employ, in the expression of our sentiments.

VERSIFICATION.

Versification is the arrangement of a certain number and variety of syllables according to certain laws.

Rhyme is the correspondence of the last sound of one verse, to the last sound or syllable in another.

PART I.

LECTURES ON ORTHOGRAPHY.

LECTURE I.

SECTION 1.—Of the Nature and Definition of Orthography.

THE term, *Orthography*, is derived from a compound Greek word, signifying *writing*; and it is the business of this part of grammar to *teach us the nature and powers of letters, and the just method of spelling words*. It teaches us to form and to sound letters; to analyze and combine syllables; and to express ideas by their proper letters.

The importance of obtaining, in early life, a clear, distinct, and accurate knowledge of the sounds of the first principles of language, and a wish to lead young minds to a further consideration of a subject so curious and useful, have urged the compiler to bestow particular attention on this part of his work. Some writers think that these subjects do not properly constitute any part of grammar; and consider them as the exclusive province of the spelling book; if we reflect, that letters and their sounds are the constituent principles of that which teaches us to speak and write with propriety, and that, in general, a little knowledge of their nature is acquired from the spelling-book we must admit, that they properly belong to grammar; and that a rational consideration of these elementary principles of language is an object that demands the attention of the young grammarian. The sentiments of a very judicious and celebrated writer (Quintilian) respecting this part of grammar, may, perhaps, be properly introduced on the present occasion.

Let no persons despise, as inconsiderable, the elements of grammar, because they seem to them a matter of small consequence, to show the distinction between vowels and consonants, and to divide the latter into liquids and mutes, they, who penetrate into the innermost parts of this temple of science, will discover such refinement and subtilty of matter, as are not only proper to open the understandings of young persons, but sufficient to give exercise for the most profound knowledge and erudition."

The elementary sounds, under their smallest combination, produce a *syllable*; syllables properly combined produce a *word*; words duly combined produce a *sentence*; and sentences properly combined produce an *oration* or *discourse*. As it is, says HARRIS, in his HERMES, that to principles apparently so trifling as a few plain elementary sounds, we owe that variety of articulate voices, which has been sufficient to explain the sentiments of so innumerable a multitude, of the present and past generations of men.

We have seen that *articulate sounds* are the sounds of the human voice, formed by the organs of speech; that *letters*, which are the representatives of those articulate sounds, are combined into *syllables* and *syllables* into words; and words are used by common consent as the signs of our ideas, and of their various relations. The original application of words as the names of things, or

as the signs of our ideas of things, was purely arbitrary. There is no peculiar fitness in the words, *horse*, *tree*, *bird*, for instance, to denote the objects signified by those words; nor any reason why they should be applied as they are at present, or why they might not still be used indiscriminately one for the other, except that of custom or common consent. In the English language we use the word, *horse*, to denote a certain animal, or species of animals; in the French language the word, *cheval*, and in the Latin the word, *equus*, denote the same animal.

As an exception, however, to this general rule, it may be remarked, that some words shew an evident adaptation of sounds naturally connected with the ideas, which they signify. Among these we may reckon the nouns *cuculus* in Latin, and *cuckoo* in English, evidently intended to imitate the note of the bird, whose name they express. Of the same kind are the words *buzz*, *hiss*, *bubble-bubble*, *splash*, *splutter*, &c. In these examples, the "sound seems an echo to the sense."

Now, our *ideas* of things are the images, existing in our minds, of those things when we think of them. Thus when we think of a *horse*, a *tree*, a *bird*, we form in our minds an image of a *horse*, a *tree*, a *bird*, and these images are called ideas; and the words, *horse*, *tree*, *bird*, are the signs, (either spoken or written,) which we use to express those ideas or images, or to suggest them to the minds of others. But, when a word is used to denote a relation between other words, it is called the *sign* of a *relation*; as, in the phrases, "the hair of a horse, the bark of a tree, the feathers of a bird," the word, *of*, denotes a relation between *hair* and *horse*, *bark* and *tree*, *feathers* and *bird*; and is therefore called the sign of a relation of ideas.

SECTION 2.—Of the Alphabet.

Several letters in the English alphabet are either superfluous, or represent not simple, but complex sounds. *C*, for instance, is superfluous in both its sounds; the one being expressed by *k*, and the other by *s*. *G*, in the soft pronunciation, is not a simple, but a complex sound; as *age* is pronounced *aidge*. *J* is unnecessary, because its sound, and that of the soft *g*, are in our language the same. *Q*, with its attendant *u*, is either complex, and resolvable into *kw*, as in *quality*; or unnecessary, because its sound is the same with *k*, as in *opaque*. *X* is compounded of *gs*, as in *example*; or of *ks*, as in *expect*.

A perfect alphabet of the English language, and, indeed, of every other language, would contain a number of letters, precisely equal to the number of simple articulate sounds belonging to the language. Every simple sound would have its distinct character; and that character be the representative of no other sound. But this is far from being the state of the English alphabet. It has more original sounds than distinct significant letters; and, consequently, some of these letters are made to represent, not one sound alone, but several sounds. This will appear by reflecting, that the sounds signified by the united letters *sh*, *ng*, are elementary, and have no single appropriate characters, in our alphabet; and that the letters *a*, and *u*, represent the different sounds heard in *hate*, *hall*; and in *but*, *bull*, *mule*.

To explain this subject more fully to the learners, we shall set down the characters made use of to represent all the elementary sounds of our language, as nearly in the manner and order of the present English alphabet, as the design of the subject will admit; and shall annex to each character the syllable or word, which contains its proper and distinct sound. And here it will be proper to begin with the vowels.

VOWELS.

Letters denoting the simple sounds.		Words containing the simple sounds.	
a long	- - as	heard in	- - - ale, pale.
a short	- - as	in	- - - at, bat.
a middle	- as	in	- - - arm, farm.
a broad	- as	in	- - - all, call.
e long	- - as	in	- - - me, bee.
e short	- - as	in	- - - met, net.
i long	- - as	in	- - - pine, pile.
i short	- - as	in	- - - pin, tin.
o long	- - as	in	- - - no, so.
o short	- - as	in	- - - not, lot.
o middle	- as	in	- - - move, prove.
u long	- - as	in	- - - muse, use.
u short	- as	in	- - - but, nut.
u middle	- as	in	- - - bull, full.

this list it appears, that there are in the English language fourteen simple sounds ; but as *i* and *u*, when pronounced long, may be considered as diphthongs, or diphthongal vowels, our language, strictly speaking, contains but five simple vowel sounds ; to represent which, we have only five distinct letters or letters. If *a* in *arm*, is the same specific sound as *a* in *at* ; and *u* in *use*, the same as *o* in *move*, which is the opinion of some grammarians ; then there are but ten original vowel sounds in the English language.

Some grammarians subdivide vowels into the *simple* and the *compound*. But this does not appear to be any foundation for the distinction. Simplicity is essential to the nature of a vowel, which excludes every degree of mixed or compound sounds. It requires, according to the definition, but one conformation of the organs of speech, to form it, and no motion in the organs, whilst it is forming.

It is generally acknowledged by the best grammarians, that *w* and *y* are consonants when they begin a syllable or word, and vowels when they end one. They are consonants, when used as initials, seems to be evident from their preceding the article *an* before them, as it would be improper to say *an* *walnut*, *an* *yard*, &c. and from their following a vowel without any hiatus or difficulty of utterance ; as, *frosty winter*, *rosy youth*. That they are vowels in other situations, appears from their regularly taking the sound of other vowels ; *w* has the exact sound of *u* in *saw*, *few*, *now*, &c. and *y* that of *i* in *hymn*, *crystal*, &c.

We present the following as a more exact and philosophical definition of a vowel, than that given in the General View.

A vowel is a simple, articulate sound, perfect in itself, and formed by a continuous effusion of the breath, and a certain conformation of the mouth, without variation in the position, or any motion of the organs of speech, from the time the vocal sound commences, till it ends.

CONSONANTS.

In considering the sounds of the first principles of language, we find that they are so simple and unmixed, that there is nothing required but the opening of the mouth to make them understood, and to form different sounds. Whence we have the names of *vowels*, or *voices*, or *vocal sounds*. On the contrary, we find that there are others, whose pronunciation depends on the particular appli-

cation and use of every part of the mouth, as the teeth, the lips, the tongue, palate &c. which yet cannot make any one perfect sound but by their union with those vocal sounds; and these are called *consonants*, or letters *sound with* other letters.

The following list denotes the sounds of the consonants, being in number twenty-two.

Letters denoting the simple sounds.				Words containing the simple sounds.				
b	-	-	-	as heard in	-	-	-	bat, tub.
d	-	-	-	as	in	-	-	dog, sod.
f	-	-	-	as	in	-	-	for, off.
v	-	-	-	as	in	-	-	van, love.
g	-	-	-	as	in	-	-	go egg.
h*	-	-	-	as	in	-	-	hop, ho.
k	-	-	-	as	in	-	-	kill, oak.
l	-	-	-	as	in	-	-	lop, loil.
m	-	-	-	as	in	-	-	n-y, mum.
n	-	-	-	as	in	-	-	nod, nun.
p	-	-	-	as	in	-	-	pin, pup.
r	-	-	-	as	in	-	-	rap, tar.
s	-	-	-	as	in	-	-	so, lass.
z	-	-	-	as	in	-	-	zed, buzz.
t	-	-	-	as	in	-	-	top, mat.
w	-	-	-	as	in	-	-	wo, will.
y	-	-	-	as	in	-	-	ye, yes.
ng	-	-	-	as	in	-	-	kin-, sing,
sh	-	-	-	as	in	-	-	shy, ash.
th	-	-	-	as	in	-	-	thin, thick.
th	-	-	-	as	in	-	-	then, hem.
zh	-	-	-	as	in	-	-	pleasure.

We have shown, that it is essential to the nature of a consonant, that it not be fully uttered without the aid of a vowel. We may further observe, even the *names* of the consonants, as they are pronounced in reciting the alphabet, require the help of vowels to express them. In pronouncing the name of the mutes, the assistant vowels *follow* the consonants; as, *be, pe, te de. ka.* pronouncing the names of the semi-vowels the vowels generally *precede* the consonants; as, *ef, el, em, en, ar, es, ex.* The exceptions are, *ce, ge, ve, zee.*

This distinction, between the *nature* and the *name* of a consonant, is of great importance, and should be well explained to the pupil. They are frequently confounded by writers on grammar. Observations and reasonings, on the subject are often applied to explain the nature of a consonant; and, by this means the student is led into error and perplexity, respecting these elements of language. It should be impressed on his mind, that the name of every consonant is a *plex* sound; but that the consonant itself is always a *simple* sound.

From the preceding representation, it appears to be a point of considerable importance, that every learner of the English language should be taught to pronounce perfectly, and with facility, every original simple sound that belongs to it. By a timely and judicious care in this respect, the voice will be prepared to utter, with ease and accuracy, every combination of sounds; and taught to avoid that confused and imperfect manner of pronouncing words, which accompanies, through life, many persons, who have not, in this respect, been properly instructed at an early period.

* Some grammarians suppose *h* to mark only an aspiration, or breathing; but it appears to be a distinct sound, and formed in a particular manner, by the organs of speech.

The following is offered as a more exact and philosophical definition of a consonant, than that given in the *General View*.

A Consonant is a simple articulate sound, imperfect by itself, but which, joined with a vowel forms a complete sound, by a particular motion or contact of the organs of speech.

DIPHTHONGS.

Each of the diphthongal letters was, doubtless, originally heard in pronouncing the words which contain them. Though this is not the case at present, with respect to many of them, these combinations still retain the name of diphthongs; but, to distinguish them, they are marked by the term *improper*. As the diphthong derives its name and nature from its sound, and not from its letters, and properly denotes a double vowel sound, no union of two vowels, where one is silent can, in strictness, be entitled to that appellation; and the single letters, *i* and *u*, when pronounced long, must, in this view, be considered as diphthongs. The triphthongs, having at most two sounds, are merely ocular, and are, therefore, by some grammarians classed with the diphthongs.

LECTURE II.

General observations on the sounds of the letters.

A

A has four sounds; the long or slender, the broad, the short or open, and the middle.

The long; as in name, basin, creation.

The broad; as in call, wall, all.

The short; as in barrel, fancy, glass.

The middle; as in far, farm, father.

The diphthong, *aa*, generally sounds like *a* short in proper names; as in Baalam, Canaan, Isaac; but not in Baal, Gaal.

Ac has the sound of long *e*. It is sometimes found in Latin words. Some authors retain this form; as, ænigma, æquator, &c. but others have laid it aside, and write enigma, Cesar, Eneas, &c.

The diphthong, *ai*, has exactly the long slender sound of *a*, as in pail, tail, &c. pronounced pale, tale, &c.—except plaid, again, railery, fountain, Britain, and a few others.

Au is generally sounded like the broad *a*; as in taught, caught, &c. Sometimes like the short or open *a*; as in aunt, flaut, gauntet, &c. It has the sound of long *o* in hautboy; and that of *o* short in laurel, laudanum, &c.

Aw has always the sound of broad *a*; as in bawl, scrawl, crawl.

Ay, like its near relation, *ai*, is pronounced like the long slender sound of *a*; as in pay, day, delay.

B

B keeps one unvaried sound, at the beginning, middle, and end of words; as in baker, number, rhubarb, &c.

In some words it is silent; as in thumb, debtor, subtle, &c. In others, besides being silent, it lengthens the syllable; as in climb, comb, tomb.

C

C has two different sounds.

A hard sound like *k*, before *a*, *o*, *u*, *r*, *l*, *t*; as, in cart, cottage, curious, craft, tract, cloth, &c.; and when it ends a syllable; as, in victim, flaccid.

A soft sound like *s* before *e*, *i*, and *y* generally; as in centre, face, civil, cymbal, mercy, &c. It has sometimes the sound of *sh*; as in ocean, social.

C is mute in czar, czarina, victuals, &c.

C, says Dr. Johnson, according to English orthography, never ends a word; and therefore we find in our best dictionaries, stick, block, publick, politick, &c. But many writers of latter years omit the *k* in words of two or more syllables; and this practice is gaining ground, though it is productive of irregularities; such as writing mimic and mimicry; traffic and trafficking.

Ch is commonly sounded like *tch*; as in church, chin, chaff, charter; but in words derived from the Greek has the sound of *k*; as in chymist, scheme, chorus, chyle, distich; and in foreign names; as, Achish, Baruch, Enoch, &c.

Ch, in some words derived from the French, takes the sound of *sh*; as in chaise, chagrin, chevalier, machine.

Ch in arch, before a vowel, sounds like *k*; as in arch angel, archives, Archipelago; except in arched, archery, archer, and arch-enemy;—but before a consonant it always sounds like *tch*; as in archbishop, archduke, archpresbyter, &c. *Ch*, is silent in schedule, schism, and yacht.

D.

D keeps one uniform sound, at the beginning, middle, and end of words; as in death, bandage, kindred; unless it may be said to take the sound of *t*, in stuffed, tripped, &c. as, stuff, tript, &c.

E.

E has three different sounds.

A long sound; as in scheme, glebe, severe, pulley.

A short sound; as in men, bed, clemency.

An obacure and scarcely perceptible sound; as, open, lucre, participle.

It has sometimes the sound of middle *a*; as in clerk, serjeant; and sometimes that of short *i*; as in England, yes, pretty.

E is always mute at the end of a word, except in monosyllables that have no other vowel; as, me, he, she;—or in substantives derived from the Greek; as, catastrophe, epitome, Penelope. It is used to soften and modify the foregoing consonants; as, force, rage, since, oblige;—or to lengthen the preceding vowel; as, can, cane; pin, pine; rob, robe.

The diphthong *ea* is generally sounded like *e* long; as in appear, beaver, creature, &c. It has also the sound of short *e*; as in breath, meadow, treasure. And it is sometimes pronounced like the long and slender *a*; as in bear, break, great.

Eau has the sound of long *o*; as in beau, flambeau, portmanteau. In beauty and its compounds, it has the sound of long *u*.

Ei, in general, sounds the same as long and slender *a*; as in deign, vein, neighbour, &c. It has the sound of long *e* in seize, deceit, receive, either, neither, &c. It is sometimes pronounced like short *i*; as in foreign, forfeit, sovereign, &c.

Eo is pronounced like *e* long; as in people; and sometimes like *e* short; as in leopard, jeopardy. It has also the sound of short *u*; as in dungeon, sturgeon, pucehon, &c.

Eu is always sounded like long *u* or *ew*; as in feud, deuce.

Ew is almost always pronounced like long *u*; as in few, new, dew.

Ey, when the accent is on it, is always pronounced like *a* long; as in bey, grey, convey; except in key, ley, where it is sounded like long *e*.

When this diphthong is unaccented, it takes the sound of *e* long; as, alley, valley, barley.

F

F keeps one pure unvaried sound at the beginning, middle, and end of words; as, fancy, muffin, mischief, &c.; except in *of*, in which it has the flat sound of

ov ; but not in composition ; as, whereof, thereof, &c. We should not pronounce, a wife's jointure, a calve's head ; but a wife's jointure, a calf's head.

G

G has two sounds ;—one hard ; as in gay, go ;—the other soft ; as in gem, giant. At the end of a word it is always hard ; as in bag, snug, frog. It is hard before *a, o, u, l*, and *r* ; as game, gone, gull, glory, grandeur.

G, before *e, i*, and *y*, is soft ; as in genius, gesture, ginger, Egypt ; except in *get, gewgaw, finger, craggy*, and some others.

G is mute before *n* ; as in guash, sign, foreign, &c.

Gn, at the end of a word, or syllable accented, gives the preceding vowel a long sound ; as in resign, impugn, oppugn, impregno, impugned ; pronounced *im-pne, imprene, &c.*

Gh, at the beginning of a word, has the sound of the hard *g* ; as, ghost, ghastly ; in the middle, and sometimes at the end, it is quite silent ; as in right, high, plough, mighty.

At the end it has often the sound of *f* ; as in laugh, cough, tough. Sometimes only the *g* is sounded ; as in burgh, burgher.

H

The sound signified by this letter, is, as before observed, an articulate sound, and not merely an aspiration. It is hard in the words, hat, horse, Hull. It is seldom mute at the beginning of a word. It is always silent after *r* ; as, rhetoric, rheum, rhubarb.

H final, preceded by a vowel, is always silent ; as, ah ! hah ! oh ! foh ! Sa-rah, Messiah.

From the faintness of the sound of this letter, in many words, and its total silence in others, added to the negligence of tutors, and the inattention of pupils, it has happened, that many persons have become almost incapable of acquiring its just and full pronunciation. It is, therefore, incumbent on teachers, to be particularly careful to inculcate a clear and distinct utterance of this sound.

I

I has a long sound ; as in fine ;—and a short one ; as in fin.

The long sound is always marked by *e* final in monosyllables ; as, thin, thine ; except give, live. Before *r* it is often sounded like a short *u* ; as flirt, first.—In some words it has the sound of *e* long ; as in machine, bombazine, magazine.

The diphthong *ia* is frequently sounded like *ya* ; as in christian, filial, pointard ; pronounced christ-yan, &c. It has sometimes the sound of short *i* ; as in carriage, marriage, parliament.

Ic sounds in general like *e* long ; as in grief, thief, grenadier. It has also the sound of long *i* ; as in die, pie, lie ;—and sometimes that of short *i* ; as in sieve.

Ieu has the sound of long *u* ; as in lieu, adieu, purliu.

Io, when the accent is upon the first vowel, forms two distinct syllables ; as priory, violet, violent. The terminations *tion* and *sion*, are sounded exactly like the verb shun ; except when the *t* is preceded by *s* or *x* ; as in question, digestion, combustion, mixtion, &c.

The triphthong, *iou*, is sometimes pronounced distinctly in two syllables ; as in bilious, various, abstemious. But these vowels often coalesce into one syllable ; as in precious, factious, noxious.

J.

J is sounded exactly like soft *g* ; except in hallelujah, where it is pronounced like *y*.

K

K has the sound of *c* hard, and is used before *e* and *i*, where, according to English analogy, *c* would be soft ; as, kept, king, skirts. It is not sounded be-

fore *n* ; as in knife, knell, knocker. It is never doubled, except in Habakkuk ; but *c* is used before it, to shorten the vowel by a double consonant ; as, cockle pickle, sucker.

L

L has always a soft liquid sound ; as in love, billow, quarrel. It is sometimes mute ; as in half, talk, psalm. The custom is to double the *L* at the end of monosyllables ; as, mill, will, fall ; except where a diphthong precedes it ; as, bail, toil, soil.

Le, at the end of words, is pronounced as a weak *el* ; in which the *e* is almost mute ; as, table, shuttle.

M

M has always the same sound ; as, murmur, monumental, except in comptroller, which is pronounced controller.

N

N has two sounds ;—the one pure ; as in man, net, noble ; the other a ringing sound like *ng* ; as in thank, banquet, &c.

N is mute when it ends a syllable, and is preceded by *m* ; as, hymn, solemn, autumn.

The participial *ing* must always have its ringing sound ; as, writing, reading, speaking. Some writers have supposed that when *ing* is preceded by *ing* it should be pronounced *in* ; as, singing, bringing, should be sounded *singin*, *bringin* ; but, as it is a good rule, with respect to pronunciation, to adhere to the written words, unless custom has clearly decided otherwise, it does not seem seem proper to adopt this innovation.

O

O has a long sound ; as in note, bone, obedient, over ; and a short one ; as in not, got, lot, trot.

It has sometimes the short sound of *u* ; as, son, come, attorney. And in some words it is sounded like *oo* ; as in prove, move ; and often like *au* ; as in nor, for, lord.

The diphthong, *oa*, is regularly pronounced as the long sound of *o* ; as in boat, oat, coal ; except in broad, abroad, groat, where it takes the sound of broad *a* ; as, bawd, &c.

Oe has the sound of single *e*. It is sometimes long ; as in foetus, Antæci ; and sometimes short ; as in œconomics, œcumenical. In doe, foe, sloe, toe, throe, hoe, and bilboes, it is sounded exactly like long *o*.

Oi has almost universally the double sound of *a* broad and *e* long united, as in boy ; as, boil, toil, spoil, joint point, ointment ; which should never be pronounced as if written bile, spile, tile, &c.

Oo almost always preserves its regular sound ; as in moon, soon, food. It has a shorter sound in wool, good, foot, and a few others. In blood and flood it sounds like short *u*. Door and floor should always be pronounced as if written dore, flore.

The diphthong, *ou*, has six different sounds. The first and proper sound is equivalent to *ov* in down ; as in bound, bound surround.

The second is that of short *u* ; as in enough, trouble journey.

The third is that of *oo* ; as in soup, youth, tournament.

The fourth is that of long *o* ; as in though, mourn, poultice.

The fifth is that of short *o* ; as in cough, trough.

The sixth is that of *ave* ; as in ought, brought, thought.

Ou is generally sounded like *ou* in thou ; as in brown, dowry, shower. It has also the sound of long *o* ; as in snow, grown, bestow.

The diphthong, *oy*, is but another form for *oi*, and is pronounced exactly like it.

P

P has always the same sound, except, perhaps, in cupboard, where it sounds like *b*. It is sometimes mute; as in psalm, psalter, Ptolemy; and between *m* and *t*; as, tempt, empty, presumptuous.

Ph is generally pronounced like *f*; as in philosophy, philanthropy, Philip.

In nephew and Stephen, it has the sound of *v*. In apophthegm, phthisis, phthisic, and phthisical, both letters are entirely dropped.

Q

Q is always followed by *u*; as, quadrant, queen, quire.

Qu is sometimes sounded like *k*; as, conquer, liquor, risque.

R

R has a rough sound; as in Rome, river, rage; and a smooth one; as in barb, card, regard.

Re, at the end of many words, is pronounced like a weak *er*; as in theatre, sepulchre, massacre.

S

S has two different sounds.

A soft and flat sound, like *z*; as, bosom, nasal, dismal.

A sharp hissing sound; as, saint, sister, cyprus.

It is always sharp at the beginning of words.

At the end of words it takes the soft sound; as, his, was, trees, eyes; except in the words this, thus, us, yes, rebus, surplus, &c. and in words terminating with *ous*.

It sounds like *z* before *ion*, if a vowel goes before; as, intrusion; but like *s* sharp, if it follows a consonant; as, conversion. It also sounds like *z* before *e* mute; as, amuse; and before *y* final; as, rosy; and in the words, bosom, desire, wisdom, &c.

S is mute in isle, island, demesne, viscount.

T

T generally sounds, as in take, temper. *T* before *u*, when the accent precedes, sounds like *tch*; as, nature, virtue, are pronounced natchure, virtchue. *Ti* before a vowel has the sound of *sh*; as in salvation; except in such words as tierce, tiara, &c. and unless an *s* goes before; as question; and excepting also derivatives from words ending in *ty*; as, mighty, mightier.

Th has two sounds;—the one soft and flat; as, thus, whether, heathen; the other hard and sharp; as, thing, think, breath.

Th, at the beginning of words, is sharp; as, in thank, thick, thunder; except in that, then, thus, thither, and some others. *Th*, at the end of words, is also sharp; as, death, breath, mouth;—except in with, booth, beneath, &c.

Th, in the middle of words, is sharp; as, panther, orthodox, misanthrope;—except worthy, farthing, brethren, and a few others.

Th, between two vowels, is generally flat in words purely English; as, father, heathen, together, neither, mother.

Th, between two vowels, in words from the learned languages, is generally sharp; as, apathy, sympathy, Athens, apothecary.

Th is sometimes pronounced like simple *t*; as, Thomas, thyme, Thames, asthma.

U

U has three sounds, viz.

A long sound; as in mute, tube, cubic.

A short sound; as in dull, gull, custard.

An obtuse sound, like *oo*; as in bull, full, bushel.

The strangest deviation of this letter from its natural sound, is in the words busy, business, bury, and burial; which are pronounced bizzy, bizoeas, berry and berrial.

A is now often used before words beginning with *u* long, and *an* always before those that begin with *u* short ; as, a union, a university, a useful book ; an uproar, an umbrella.

The diphthong, *ua*, has sometimes the sound of *wa* ; as in assuage, persuade, antiquary. It has also the sound of middle *a* ; as in guard, guardian, guarantee.

Ue is often sounded like *we* ; as in quench, querist, conquest. It has also the sound of long *u* ; as in cue, hue, ague, guess. In some words it is entirely sunk ; as in antique, oblique, prorogue, catalogue, dialogue, &c.

Ui is frequently pronounced *vi* ; as in languid, anguish, extinguish. It has sometimes the sound of *i* long ; as in guide, guilt, disguise ;—and sometimes that of *i* short ; as in guilt, guinea, guildhall. In some words it is sounded like long *u* ; as in juice, suit, pursuit ;—and after *r*, like *oo* ; as in bruise, fruit, recruit.

Uo is pronounced like *wo* ; as in quote, quorum, quondam.

Uy has the sound of long *e* ; as in obloquy, soliloquy ; pronounced obloquæ, &c. except buy, and its derivatives.

V

V has the sound of flat *f* ; and bears the same relation to it, as *b* does to *p*, *d* to *t*, hard *g* to *k*, and *z* to *s*. It has also one uniform sound ; as vain, vanity, love.

W

W, when a consonant, has nearly the sound of *oo* ; as water resembles the sound of *oater* ; but that it has a stronger and quicker sound than *oo*, and has a formation essentially different, will appear to any person who pronounces, with attention, the words *wo*, *woo*, *beware* ; and who reflects that it will not admit the article *an* before it ; which *oo* would admit. In some words it is not sounded ; as in answer, sword, wholesome ;—it is always silent before *r* ; as in wrap, wreck, wrinkle, wrist, wrong, wry, bewray, &c.

W, before *h*, is pronounced as if it were after *h* ; as, why, hwy ; when, hwen ; what, hwat.

W is often joined to *o*, at the end of a syllable, without affecting the sound of that vowel ; as in crow, blow, grow, know, row, flow, &c.

When *w* is a vowel, and is distinguished in the pronunciation, it has exactly the same sound as *u* would have in the same situation ; as, draw, crew, view, now, sawyer, vowel, outlaw.

X

X has three sounds, viz.

It is sounded like *z* at the beginning of proper names of Greek original ; as in Xanthus, X-cophon, Xerxes.

It has a sharp sound like *ks*, when it ends a syllable with the accent upon it ; as exit, exercise, excellence ; or when the accent is on the next syllable, if it begins with a consonant ; as excuse, extent, expense.

It has, generally, a flat sound like *gz* when the accent is not on it, and the following syllable, if it begins with a vowel ; as, exert, exist, example ; pronounced, egzert, egzist, egzample.

Y

Y, when a consonant, has nearly the sound of *ee* ; as youth, York, resemble the sounds of *eeouth*, *eeork* ; but that this is not its exact sound, will be clearly perceived by pronouncing the words, *ye*, *yes*, *new-year*, in which its just and proper sound is ascertained. It not only requires a stronger exertion of the organs of speech to pronounce it, than is required to pronounce *ee* ; but its formation is essentially different. It will not admit of *an* before it, as *ee* will in the following example ; an *eel*. The opinion that *y* and *w*, when they begin a word,

or syllable, take exactly the sound of *ee* and *oo*, has induced some grammarians to assert, that these letters are always vowels or diphthongs.

When *y* is a vowel, it has exactly the same sound as *i* would have in the same situation; as, rhyme, system, justify, pyramid, party, faucy, hungry.

Z

Z has the sound of an *s* uttered with a closer compression of the palate by the tongue;—it is the flat *s*; as, freeze, frozen, brazen.

It may be proper to remark, that the sounds of the letters vary, as they are differently associated, and that the pronunciation of these associations depends upon the position of the accent. It may also be observed, that, in order to pronounce accurately, great attention must be paid to the vowels which are not accented. There is scarcely any thing which more distinguishes a person of a poor education, from a person of a good one, than the pronunciation of the *unaccented* vowels. When vowels are *under the accent*, the best speakers and the lowest of the people, with very few exceptions, pronounce them in the same manner; but the unaccented vowels in the mouths of the former, have a distinct, open, and specific sound, while the latter often totally sink them, or change them into some other sound.

LECTURE III.

SECTION 1.—Of syllables.

The following are the general rules for the division of words into syllables.

1. A single consonant between two vowels, must be joined to the latter syllable;—as, de-light, bri-dal, re-source;—except the letter *x*; as, ex-ist, ex-amine;—and except likewise words compounded; as up-on, un-even, dis-ease.

2. Two consonants proper to begin a word, must not be separated; as *ble*, *stfle*. But when they come between two vowels, and are such as cannot begin a word, they must be divided; as, ut-most, un-der, in-sect, er-ror, cof-fin.

3. When three consonants meet in the middle of a word, if they can begin a word, and the preceding vowel be pronounced long, they are not to be separated; as, de-throne, de-stroy. But when the vowel of the preceding syllable is pronounced short, one of the consonants always belongs to that syllable; as, dis-tract, dis-train.

4. When three or four consonants, which are not proper to begin a syllable, meet between two vowels, such of them as can begin a syllable belong to the latter, the rest to the former syllable;—as, ab-stain, com-plete, em-broil, dap-ple, con-strain, hand-some, parch-ment.

5. Two vowels, not being a diphthong, must be divided into separate syllables; as, cru-el, de-ni-al, so-ci-e-ty.

6. Compounded words must be traced into the simple words of which they are composed; as, ice-house, glow-worm, over-power, nev-er-the-less.

7. Grammatical, and other particular terminations, are generally separated; as, teach-est, teach-eth, teach-ing, teach-er, contend-est, great-er, wretch-ed; good-ness, free-dom, false-hood.

SECTION II.—Of Spelling

The orthography of a great number of English words is far from being uniform, even amongst writers of distinction. Thus *honour* and *honor*, *inquire* and *enquire*, *negotiate* and *negociate*, *control* and *controul*, *expence* and *expcnce*, *allege* and *alledge*, *surprise* and *surprize*, *complete* and *compleat*, *connexion* and *connection*, *abridgment* and *abridgement*, and many other orthographical variations, are to be met with in the best modern publications. Some authority for

deciding differences of this nature appears to be necessary; and where can we find one of equal pretensions with Dr. Johnson's Dictionary? though a few of his decisions do not appear to be warranted by the principles of etymology and analogy, the stable foundations of his improvements.—“As the weight of truth and reason (says Nares in his “Elements of Orthoepey”) is irresistible, Dr. Johnson's Dictionary has nearly fixed the external form of our language. Indeed, so convenient is it to have one acknowledged standard to recur to; so much preferable, in matters of this nature, is a trifling degree of irregularity, to a continual change, and fruitless pursuit of unattainable perfection; that it is earnestly to be hoped, that no author will henceforth, on light grounds, be tempted to innovate.”

With a view to remedy, in some measure, the inconvenience arising from the uncertainty and perplexity, with which the orthography of the English language is attended, the learner is here presented with such general maxims in spelling primitive and derivative words, as have been almost universally received,—with appropriate exercises under each rule.

RULE I.

Monosyllables ending with *f*, *l*, or *s*, preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant; as, *staff*, *mill*, *pass*, &c. The only exceptions are, *of*, *if*, *a*, *is*, *has*, *was*, *yes*, *his*, *this*, *us*, and *thus*.

Exercises in False Orthography.—It is no great merit to spell properly; but a great defect to do it incorrectly. Jacob worshipped his creator, leaning on the top of his staff.—We may place too little, as well as too much stress upon dreams.—Our manners should be neither gross, nor excessively refined.—Can you tell us any news?—The vicious man is his own greatest enemy.—Snakes hiss.—A tall man should walk with a long staff.

RULE II.

Monosyllables ending with any consonant but *f*, *l*, or *s*, and preceded by a single vowel, never double the final consonant; excepting *add*, *cbb*, *butt*, *egg*, *odd*, *err*, *inn*, *hunn*, *purr*, and *buzz*.

Exercises in False Orthography.—A carr signifies a chariot of war, or a small carriage, of burden.—In the names of drugs and plants, the mistake in a word may endanger life.

Nor undelightful is the ceaseless hum,
To him, who muses through the woods at noon.

The fin of a fish is the limb, by which he balances his body, and moves in the water.—Many a trap is laid to ensnare the feet of youth.—Many thousand families are supported by the simple business of making mats.

RULE III.

Words ending with *y*, preceded by a consonant, form the plurals of nouns, the persons of verbs, verbal nouns, past participles, comparatives, and superlatives by changing *y* into *i*; as, *spy*, *spies*; *I carry*, *thou carriest*; *he carrieth*, or *carries*; *carrier*, *carried*; *happy*, *happier*, *happiest*.

The present participle in *ing*, retains the *y*, that *i* may not be doubled; as, *carry*, *carrying*; *bury*, *burying*.

But *y*, preceded by a vowel, in such instances as the above, is not changed; as, *boy*, *boys*; *I cloy*, *he cloyed*, &c.; except in *lay*, *pay*, and *say*; from which are formed, *laid*, *paid*, and *said*; and their compounds, *unlaid*, *unpaid*, *unsaid*, &c.

Exercises in False Orthography.—We should subject our fancies to the government of reason.—If thou art seeking for the living among the dead, thou wearyest thyself in vain.—If we have denied ourselves sinful pleasures, we shall be great gainers in the end.—We shall not be the happier for possessing talents and affluence, unless we make a right use of them.—The truly good man is not dismayed by poverty, afflictions, or death.—The debt still remains unpaid.—They layed him in the grave.—The monies, thence arising, were appropriated to charitable uses.—Details are dangerous.—The party appeared by their attornies. The chimnies want sweeping.—These vallies are deep.—They make long journies.

RULE IV.

Words ending with *y*, preceded by a consonant, upon assuming an additional syllable beginning with a consonant, commonly change *y* into *i*; as, *happy*, *happily*, *happiness*. But when *y* is preceded by a vowel, it is very rarely changed in the additional syllable; as, *coy*, *coyly*; *boy*, *boyish*, *boyhood*; *annoy*, *annoyer*, *annoyance*; *joy*, *joyless*, *joyful*.

Exercises in False Orthography.—It is a great blessing to have a sound mind, uninfluenced by fanciful humours.—Common calamities and common blessings fall heavily upon the envious.—The comeliness of youth are modesty and frankness; of age, condescension and dignity.—When we act against conscience, we become the destroyers of our peace.—We may be pious, and yet innocent; grave and yet corrupt.—It is only from general conduct, that our true character can be portrayed.—Manyfold blessings attend us on every side.

RULE V.

Monosyllables, and words accented on the last syllable, ending with a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, double that consonant, when they take another syllable beginning with a vowel; as, *mit*, *mitty*; *thin*, *thinnish*; *to abet*, *an abettor*; *to begin*, *a beginner*.

But if a diphthong precedes, or the accent is on the preceding syllable, the consonant remains single; as, *to toil*, *toiling*; *to offer*, *an offering*; *maid*, *maiden*, &c.

Exercises in False Orthography.—When we bring the lawmaker into contempt, we have in effect annulled his law.—By deferring our repentance, we accumulate our sorrows.—The pupils of a certain ancient philosopher were not, during their first years of study, permitted to ask any questions.—We all have many failings and lapses to lament and recover.—There is no affliction, with which we are visited, that may not be improved to our advantage. The christian lawgiver has prohibited many things, which the heathen philosophers allowed.

RULE VI.

Words, ending with any double letter but *l*, and taking *ness*, *less*, *ly*, or *ful*, after them, preserve the letter double; as, *harmlessness*, *carelessness*, *carelessly*, *stiffly*, *successful*, *distressful*, &c. But those words which end with double *l*, and take *ness*, *less*, *ly*, or *ful*, after them, generally omit one *l*; as, *fulness*, *skilless*, *fully*, *skilful*, &c.

Exercises in False Orthography.—Restlessness of mind disqualifies us, both for the enjoyment of peace, and the performance of our duty.—The arrows of calumny fall harmlessly at the feet of virtue.—The road to the blissful regions is as open to the peasant, as the king.—A chilliness, or shivering of the body, generally precedes a fever.—To recommend virtue to others, our lights must shine brightly and not dully.

The silent stranger stood amazed to see
Contempt of wealth, and willful poverty.

RULE VII.

Ness, *less*, *ly*, and *ful*, added to words ending with silent *e*, do not cut it off; as, *paleness*, *guiltness*, *closely*, *peaceful*; except in a few words; as, *duly*, *truly*, *unful*.

Exercises in False Orthography.—The warmth of disputation destroys that sedateness of mind, which is necessary to discover truth.

All these with ceaseless praise his works behold,
Both day and night.

In all our reasoning, our mind should be sincerely employed in the pursuit of truth. Rude behaviour and indecent language are peculiarly disgraceful to youth of education. The true worship of God is an important and awful service. Wisdom alone is truly fair; folly only appears so.

RULE VIII.

Ment, added to words ending with silent *e*, generally preserves the *e* from elision; as, *abatement*, *chastisement*, *incitement*, &c. The words, *judgment*, *abridgment*, *acknowledgment*, are deviations from the rule.

Like other terminations, *ment* changes *y* into *i*, when preceded by a consonant; as *accompany*, *accompaniment* ; *merry*, *merriment*.

Exercises in False Orthography.—The study of the English language is making daily advancement.—A judicious arrangement of studies facilitates improvement.—The judgements of heaven will surely overtake the wicked. There are many abridgements of Murray's grammar.

To shun allurments is not hard,
To minds resolv'd, forewarn'd, and well prepar'd.

RULE IX.

Able and *ible*, when incorporat'd into words ending with silent *e*, almost always cut it off; as, *blame*, *blamable* ; *cure*, *curable* ; *sense*, *sensible*, &c. ; but if *e* or *g* soft comes before *e* in the original word, the *e* is then preserved in words compounded with *able* ; as, *change*, *changeable* ; *peace*, *peaceable*, &c.

Exercises in False Orthography.—Every person and thing connected with self, is apt to appear good and desirable in our eyes. Errors and misconduct are more excusable in ignorant, than in well instructed persons. The divine laws are not reversible by those of men.—Gratitude is a forceible and active principle in good and generous minds. Our natural and involuntary defects of body are not chargeable upon us. We are made to be servicable to others, as well as to ourselves.

RULE X.

When *ing* or *ish* is added to words ending with silent *e*, the *e* is almost universally omitted; as, *place*, *placing* ; *lodge*, *lodging* ; *slave*, *slavish* ; *prude*, *prudish*.

Exercises in False Orthography.—An obliging and humble disposition is totally unconnected with a servile and cringeing humour. By solacing the sorrows of others, the heart is improved, at the same time, that our duty is performed. The inadvertancies of youth may be excused, but knaveish tricks should meet with severe reproof.

RULE XI.

Compounded words are generally spelled in the same manner, as the simple words of which they are formed ; as, *glasshouse*, *thereby*, *hereby*. Many words ending with double *l*, are exceptions to this rule ; as, *already*, *welfare*, *wilful*, *fulfil* ;—and also the words *wherever*, *christmas*, *lammas*, &c.

Exercises in False Orthography.—The pasover was a celebrated feast among the Jews.—A virtuous woman looketh well to the ways of her household. These people salute one another, by touching the tops of their foreheads. That, which is sometimes expedient, is not always so. We may be hurtful to others, by our example, as well as by personal injuries.—In candid minds, truth finds an entrance, and a welcome too.—Our pastimes should be innocent, and they should not occur too frequently.

SECTION 4.—Promiscuous Exercises in False Orthography.

1. Instances of False Orthography promiscuously disposed, to be rectified by the preceding Rules.

His father omitted nothing in his education, that might render him virtuous and usefull. The daw in the fable was dressed in pilfered ornaments.—A favour, conferred with delicacy, doubles the obligation.—They tempted their Creator and limited the Holy One of Israel.—The precepts of a good education have often required in the time of need.—We are frequently benefitted by what we have dreaded.—It is no great virtue to live lovingly with good natured and meek persons.—The Christian religion gives a more lovely character of God, than any religion ever did.—Any thing, committed to the trust and care of another, is a deposit.—It deserves our best skill to inquire into those rules, by which we may guide our judgment.—Food, clotheing, and habitations are the rewards of industry.

Receive his counsel, and securly move;
Entrust thy fortune to the Power above.

The acknowledgement of our transgressions must precede the forgiveness of them.—Judicious abridgements often aid the study of youth.—Calico is a thinn cloth made of cotton ; sometimes stained with livly colours.—They have made ungratefull returns.—A man will but with his head, though he be brought up tame, and never saw the action.—The

king of Great Britain is a limited monarch. The hive is in the best condition, when there is the least buzz in it.—Battering rams were anciently used to beat down the walls of a city.—The harmlessness of many animals should plead for them against cruel usage.—We may be very busy to no useful purpose.—We cannot plead in abatement of our guilt, that we are ignorant of our duty.—If we sow sparingly we shall reap accordingly.

A fit of sickness is often a kind chastisement.—It is a happiness to young persons, when they are preserved from the snares of the world, as in a garden enclosed.—Health and peace, the most valuable possessions, are obtained at small expense.—True happiness is an enemy to pomp and noise.—The earth is the Lord's and the fullness thereof.

Examine how thy humour is inclin'd.

And which the ruling passion of thy mind.

The harvest truly is plenteous, but the labourers are few.—The greater our incitements to evil, the greater will be our victory and reward.—Virtue is placed between two extremes, both of which are equally blameable.—To be faithful among the faithless argues great strength of principle.—Proper seasons should be allotted for retirement.—Many have been visited with afflictions, who have not profited by them.—We may be successful, and yet disappointed.—To maintain opinions stiffly is no evidence of their truth, or of our moderation.—The wicked are often ensnared in the trapp, which they lay for others.—It is hard to say what diseases are curable; they are all under the management of Heaven.—Instructors should not only be skillful in those sciences, which they teach; but have skill in the method of teaching, and patience in the practice.

How has kind Heaven adorn'd the happy land,

And scatter'd blessings with a wastful hand!

A steady mind may receive counsel; but there is no hold on a changable humour.—Excessive merriment is the parent of grief.—We should study to live peaceably with all men.—The voice is sometimes obstructed by a hoarsness, or viscous phlegm.—If we are so conceited as obstinately to reject all advice, we must expect a dereliction of friends.—Chronology is the science of computing and adjusting the periods of time.—Let us show diligence in every laudable undertaking.

A soul that can securely death defy,

And count it nature's privilege to die.

2.—Instances of False Orthography promiscuously disposed, to be rectified by Johnson's Dictionary.

Neglect no opportunity of doing good.—No man can steadily build upon accident.—Neither time nor misfortunes should erase the remembrance of a friend.—Moderation should preside, both in the kitchen and the parlor.—Shall we receive good at the Divine hand, and shall we not receive evil?—In many designs, we may succeed and be miserable.—We should have sense and virtue enough to recede from our demands when they appear to be unreasonable.—All our comforts proceed from the Father of Goodness.—The ruin of a state is generally preceded by a universal degeneracy of manners, and a contempt of religion.—Without sinister views, they are dextrous managers of their own interest.—If we lie no restraint upon our lusts, no controul upon our appetites and passions, they will hurry us into guilt and misery.—An independant is one who, in religious affairs, holds that every congregation is a complete church.

Following life in creatures we dissect,

We lose it in the moment we detect.

—————He falters at the question;

His fears, his words, his looks, declare him guilty.

The glazier's business was unknown to the antients.—The antecendant, in grammar, is the noun or pronoun to which the relative refers.—Be not afraid of the wicked; they are under the controul of Providence. Consciousness of guilt may justly affright us.—Convey to others no intelligence which you would be ashamed to avow.—Many are weighed in the ballance and found wanting.—How many disappointments have, in their consequences saved a man from ruin!—A well-poised mind makes a cheerful countenance.—Cinnamon is a fragrant bark of a low tree in the island of Ceylon.—We perceive a piece of silver in a basin, when water is poured on it, though we could not discover it before.—Virtue embalms the memory of the good.—The physician may dispence the medicin, but Providence alone can bless it.—In many pursuits we embark with pleasure, and land sorrow.—Rocks, mountains, and caverns, are of indispensable use, both to the earth and to man.—The roughnesses found on our entrance into the paths of virtue and learning, grow

smoother as we advance.—That which was once the most beautiful spot of Italy, and red with palaces, embellished by princes, and celebrated by poets, has now nothing show but ruins.—Jockey signifies a man who rides horses in a race; or who deals in ses.—However disagreeable, we must resolutely perform our duty.—Incence signifies fumes exhauled by fire, and made use of in religious ceremonies.—There is an inseparable connection between piety and virtue.

Many actions have a fair completion, which have not sprung from virtue.—In any way soever we turn ourselves, we are encountered with sensible demonstrations of ity.—If we forsake the ways of virtue, we cannot alledge any color of ignorance, or of instruction.—There are more cultivators of the earth, than of their own hearts.—is encompassed with dangers innumerable.—We should not encourage persons to do they believe to be wrong.—We should continually have the goal in our view, would direct us in the race.—The goals were forced open, and the prisoners set free cannot be said that we are charitable donors, when our gifts proceed from selfish motives.—Straight is the gate, and narrow the way, that lead to life eternal.—Integrity lies straight forward, disclaiming all doubleings, and crooked paths.—Licentiousness and pave the way to ruin.—Words are the counters of wise men, but the money of fools.—Repentence to no man evil for evil.—He was an excellent person; a mirror of faith in early youth.—Meekness controuls our angry passions; candor, our severe sentiments.—He is not only a pious descendant from pious ancestors, but an inheritor of their virtues.—A dispensatory is a place where medicines are dispensed; a dispensary a book in which the composition of them is described.—Faithfulness and judgment peculiarly requisite in testamentary executors.—Mountains appear to be like some of the unnatural portabercancies on the face of the earth.—In some places the sea croaches upon the land; in others, the land upon the sea.—Philosophers agreed in praising riches, as the incumbrances of life.—Fishes increase more than beasts or birds appears from their numerous spawn.—The pyramids of Egypt have stood more than a thousand years.—Precepts have small influence when not enforced by example.—An exaggerates a man's virtues, an enemy enflames his crimes.—It is laudable to enquire before we determine.—The experience of want enhances the value of plenty.—Horehound been famous for its medicinal qualities, but it is now little used.—Science strengthens and enlarges the minds of men.

We may ensure ourselves by custom, to bear the extremities of whether without it. Air is sensible to the touch by its motion, and by its resistance to bodies move. A polite address is sometimes the cloke of malice.—To practice virtue is the surest way to love it.—Many things are plausible in theory, which fail in practise.—Whatever promotes the interest of the soul, is also conducive to our present felicity.—Let not the loss of virtue fright us; she will soon become amiable.

The spacious firmament on high,
With all the blue etherial sky,
And spangled heav'ns a shining frame,
Their great Original proclaim.

Passion is the drunkenness of the mind; it supercedes the workings of reason.—if sincere, we may be assured of an advocate to intercede for us.—We ought to consider the increase of another's reputation, as a diminution of our own.—The phlegm is a painful distemper, supposed to proceed from acrid humors.—The beautiful accomplished, are too apt to study behaviour rather than virtue.—The peasant's cottage contains as much content as the sovereign's palace.—True valor protects the feeble, humbles the oppressor.—David, the son of Jesse, was a wise and valiant man.—Facts and miracles proclaimed Jesus Christ to be the Savior of the world.—Esau sold his birthright for a savory mess of pottage.—A regular and virtuous education, is a teemable blessing.

Honor and shame from no condition rise;
Act well your part; there, all the honor lies.

The rigor of monkish discipline often conceals depravity of heart.—We should remember that however favorable we may be to ourselves, we are rigorously examined by God.—Virtue can render youth, as well as old age, honorable.—Rumor often tells false.—Weak minds are ruffled by trifling things.—The cabbage-tree is very common in the West India islands, where it grows to a prodigious height.—Visit the sick, feed the hungry, clothe the naked.—His smiles and tears are too artificial to be relied on.—The necessary virtues of a Christian, are love to God and benevolence to man.—We should be cheerful without levity.—A calendar signifies a register of the year; a calendar, a press in which clothier's smooth their cloth.—Integrity and hope are the palliatives of sorrow.—Camomile is an odoriferous plant, and possesses considerable medicinal virtues.—The gaiety of youth should be tempered by the precepts of age.—Cet even on distressful occasions, is sometimes more eligible than suspense.

PART II.

LECTURES ON ETYMOLOGY.

LECTURE I.—INTRODUCTORY.

SECTION 1.—*Definition and Use of Etymology.—Number and Variety of Words.—Arbitrary signs of ideas.*

Etymology signifies the derivation of a word from its original ; and this second part of grammar treats of the different sorts of words, their various modifications, and their derivation. It comprehends the classification of words into different sorts, as *Articles, Adjectives, Nouns, &c.* the properties peculiar to each sort, and their various modifications or the different changes in the form and termination of words, on account of mood, tense, number, case, &c. and the derivation and composition of words ; or the manner in which one word is deduced from another ; as from *to love* comes *lover* ; from *to visit*, *visiter*, from *to survive*, *surviver*, &c. and the manner in which two or more words are compounded into one ; as from the words *pen* and *knife*, is formed the compound word *penknife* ; from the words, *not*, *with*, and *standing*, is formed the word, *withstanding*, &c.

In a philosophical point of view, Etymology is the science, which investigates the nature, origin, derivation, and composition of words. It is grammatical analysis, or the science of analyzing applied to language ; and teaches to separate from one another the different parts of a sentence or an assemblage of words, in order to discover the elements, of which it is composed. This is seen in the process of etymological parsing, which consists in the resolution of sentences into the different sorts of words of which they are composed ; in assigning to each part of speech its several properties, and in tracing it through its various declensions and inflections.

Though the number of elementary sounds is not great in any language, the variety of possible words, that may be formed by combining them, is, in every tongue, so great, as almost to exceed computation, and much more, than sufficient to express all the varieties of human thought. But the *real* words, even of the most copious language, may be numbered without difficulty ; for a good dictionary comprehends them all, or nearly the whole of them. In the English tongue, after deducting proper names, and the inflections of our verbs and nouns, they do not exceed forty thousand.

Words derive their meaning from the consent and practice of those, who use them. There is no necessary connexion between words and ideas. The association, between the sign and the thing signified, is purely arbitrary. If we were to contrive a new language, we might make any articulate sound the sign of any idea ; there would be no impropriety in calling oxen *men*, or rational beings by the name of *oxen*. But where a language is already formed, they, who speak it, must use words in the customary sense. By doing otherwise, they incur the charge, either of affectation, if they mean only to be remarkable, or of falsehood, if they mean to deceive. To speak as others speak, is one of those tacit obligations annexed to the condition of living in society, which we are bound in conscience to fulfil, though we have never ratified them by any express promise ; because, if they were disregarded, society would be impossible, and

human happiness at an end. It is true, that, in a book of science founded on definitions, words may be used in any sense, provided their meaning be explained. In this case there is no falsehood, because there is no intention to deceive. But, even in this case, if the common analogies of language were violated, the author would be justly blamed for giving unnecessary trouble to his readers, and for endeavouring capriciously to abrogate a custom, which universal use had rendered more respectable, as well as more convenient, than any other, which he could substitute in its room.

SECTION 2.—*Of the different sorts of Words.*

The number of the different sorts of words, or of the parts of speech, has been variously reckoned by different grammarians. Some have enumerated ten, making the participle a distinct part; some eight excluding the participle, and ranking the adjective under the noun; some four, and others only two, (the noun and the verb.) supposing the rest to be contained in the parts of their division. We have followed those authors, who appear to have given them the most natural and intelligible distribution.

To assign names to objects of thought, and to express their properties and relations are the only indispensable requisites in language. If this be admitted, it follows, that the noun and the verb are the only parts of speech, which are essentially necessary; the former being the name of the thing of which we speak, and the latter expressing what we think of it. All other sorts of words must be regarded as subsidiaries, convenient indeed for the more easy communication of thought, but by no means indispensably requisite.

The interjection, indeed, seems scarcely worthy of being considered as a part of artificial language or speech, being rather a branch of that natural language, which we possess in common with the brute creation, and by which we express the sudden emotions, that actuate our frame. But, as it is used in written as well as oral language, it may, in some measure, be deemed a part of speech. It is with us, a virtual sentence, in which the noun and verb are concealed under an imperfect or indigested word.

Whilst some grammarians have objected to the usual number and arrangement of the parts of speech, others have disapproved of the terms, by which they have been designated. Instead of the generally received appellations of *nouns, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs, and conjunctions*, they have adopted those of *names, substitutes, attributes, modifiers, and connectives*. This spirit of innovation has extended itself to other parts of grammar, and especially to the names of the tenses. Not satisfied with the ancient and approved terms, several writers, on the subject, have introduced the following, as more accurate and expressive;—*Present tense indefinite, Present tense emphatic, Present progressive or continued, Past tense continually, Prior past tense indefinite, Preterite indefinite and emphatic; The foretelling future imperfect, Prior future indefinite, Future imperfect progressive*; and many others, corresponding with these, which it would be tedious to enumerate.

Of what use such deviations from the customary established terms of our best grammarians, can be productive, we are unable to conceive. They certainly tend to perplex and confound the student, if their promoters advanced no further; but when we reflect, that the friends and projectors of such innovation may be continually altering and extending our grammatical nomenclature, there appears to be additional reason for rejecting them, and adhering to long established names. These are universally intelligible; and, if preserved, would produce a happy uniformity among all the teachers and learners of the language. They have, likewise, a great similarity to the terms used in teaching other languages; and, on this ground also, it is highly proper to retain them.

We shall close our remarks on this subject, by introducing the sentiments of Dr. Johnson respecting it;—they are extracted from his “Grammar of the English Tongue.”—“In this division and order of the parts of grammar, I follow (says he) the common grammarians, without inquiring whether a fitter distribution might not be found. Experience has long shown this method to be so distinct as to obviate confusion, and so comprehensive as to prevent any inconvenient omissions. I likewise use the terms already received, and already understood, though perhaps others more proper might sometimes be invented.—Sylburgius and other innovators, whose new terms have sunk their learning into neglect, have left sufficient warning against the trifling ambition of teaching arts in a new language.”

LECTURE II.—OF THE ARTICLES.

Articles are prefixed to nouns, to limit their signification; as, *a* man, *the* woman. When the following word begins with a vowel or a silent *h*, the letter, *n*, is added to the article, *a*, for the sake of euphony, or a better sound; and to enable us to pass from the sound of the article to the sound of the following vowel with greater ease; as, *an* acorn, *an* hour. Here we perceive, that it would be neither agreeable to the ear, nor easy to the organs of speech, to say, *a* acorn, *a* hour; we therefore change *a* into *an*, to render the pronunciation more easy and agreeable. But euphony requires this change only in the cases above mentioned; and whenever the following word does not begin with a silent *h*, or with a vowel sound, the *a* only should be used; as, *a* hand, *a* heart. *A*, instead of *an*, should also be used before words beginning with *u* long; before the diphthongs, *eu*, and *ev*, having the sound of *u* long; and before the word, *one*;—as, *a* union, *a* university, *a* useful book, *a* eunuch, *a* European, *a* eve, *a* envy, and the phrase, *many a one*. By attending to the pronunciation of these examples, we shall find, that they sound as if written, *a yunion*, *a yuniversity*, *a yuseful book*, *a yunuch*, *a yuropean*, *a yev*, (or *a yoo*) *a yury*, and *many a none*. But *y* and *n* are consonants, when they begin a word; and therefore such words do not require the euphonic article, *an*, to precede them.

An, however, must be used before words beginning with *h*, where the *h* is not silent, if the accent is on the second syllable; as, *an* heroic action, *an* historical account, &c. But in monosyllables and words having the accent on the first syllable, great care should be taken to distinguish between *h* silent and *h* not silent.

The inattention of writers and printers to this necessary distinction, has occasioned the frequent use of *an* before *h*, when it is to be pronounced; and this circumstance, more than any other, has probably contributed to that indistinct utterance, or total omission, of the sound signified by this letter, which very often occurs amongst readers and speakers. *An* horse, *an* husband, *an* herald, *an* earthen, and many similar associations, are frequently to be found in works of taste and merit. To remedy this evil, readers should be taught to omit, in all similar cases, the sound of the *n*, and to give the *h* its full pronunciation.

A noun, without any article to limit it, is generally taken in its widest sense; “A candid temper is proper for man, that is, for all mankind. The article signifies *one*, or *any one*, or *some one*; and limits the signification of the noun following it to any single object, but to no particular one; as, ‘Give me *a* book;’ ‘Bring me *an* apple.’ that is, *some one* or *any one* book, or apple whatever.—‘Thou art *a* man;’ that is *one* (*some one*, *any one*) of the class of beings called man. Thus, the article, *a*, appears to be used in a vague sense, limiting the signification of the noun to one single thing of the kind in other respects indeterminate; and is therefore properly called the *indefinite* article. But the article *a*, limits the signification of the noun to the particular object or objects refer-

red to or spoken of before ; as, "Give me *the* book ;" "Bring me *the* apples ;" meaning some particular book or apples known and referred to, or which have been already mentioned. This article has nearly the same meaning with the demonstrative pronouns, this, that ; these, those ; and indeed, according to Horne Tooke, *the* and *that* are derived from the same Anglo-Saxon verb, and have precisely the same original signification, viz. *said* or *foresaid* ; as "I saw *the* man yesterday ;" or, "I saw *that* man yesterday ;" that is, "I saw *said* man yesterday."

It is, therefore, of the nature of both the articles to define or limit the thing spoken of. *A* determines it to be one single thing of the kind, leaving it still uncertain which :—*the* determines which it is, or of many, which they are.

The following passage will serve as an example of the different uses of *a* and *the*, and of the force of the noun without any article. "*Man* was made for society, and ought to extend his good will to all men ;—but *a man* will naturally entertain a more particular kindness for *the men*, with whom he has the most frequent intercourse ; and enter into a still closer union with *the man*, whose temper and disposition suit best with his own."

The peculiar use and importance of the articles will be further seen in the following examples ; "The son of a king—the son of the king—a son of the king." Each of these three phrases has an entirely different meaning, through the different application of the articles, *a* and *the*.

"Thou art *a* man," is a very general and harmless position ; but, "Thou art *the* man," (as Nathan said to David,) is an assertion capable of striking terror and remorse into the heart.

The article is omitted before nouns that imply the different virtues, vices, passions, qualities, sciences, arts, metals, herbs, &c. as, "prudence is commendable ; falsehood is odious ; anger ought to be avoided ; &c. It is not prefixed to a proper name ; as, "Alexander." (because that of itself denotes a determinate individual or particular thing.) except for the sake of distinguishing a particular family ; as, "He is *a* Howard, or of the family of *the* Howards ;" or by way of eminence ; as, "Every man is not *a* Newton ;" "He has the courage of *an* Achilles ;" or when some noun is understood ; "He sailed down *the* (river) Thames, in *the* (ship) Britannia."

When an adjective is used with the noun to which the article relates, it is placed between the article and the noun ; as, "a *good* man," an *agreeable* woman," "the *best* friend." On some occasions, however, the adjective precedes *a* or *an* ; as, "*such* a shame," "as *great* a man as Alexander," "too *careless* an author."

The indefinite article can be joined to nouns in the singular number only ; the definite article may be joined also to plurals.

But there appears to be a remarkable exception to this rule, in the use of the adjectives, *few* and *many*, (the latter chiefly with the word *great* before it,) which, though joined with plural substantives, yet admit of the singular article *a* ; as, *a few* men ; *a great many* men.

The reason of it is manifest from the effect, which the article has in these phrases ; it means a small or great number collectively taken, and therefore gives the idea of a whole, that is, of unity. Thus likewise, a dozen, a score, a hundred, or a thousand, is one whole number, an aggregate of many collectively taken ; and therefore retains the article *a*, though joined as an adjective to a plural substantive ; as, *a* hundred years, &c.

The indefinite article is sometimes placed between the adjective *many*, and a singular noun ;—as,

"Full *many a* gem of purest ray serene,
"The dark unfathom'd caves of ocean bear ;
"Full *many a* flow'r is born to blush unseen,
"And waste its sweetness on the desert air."

In these lines, the phrases, *many a gem* and *many a flow'r* refer to *many gems* and *many flowers* separately, not collectively considered.

The definite article *the* is frequently applied to adverbs in the comparative and superlative degree ; and its effect is to mark the degree the more strongly, and to define it the more precisely ;—as, “ *The more I examine it, the better I like it. I like this the least of any.* ”

That which is nearly connected with us, or with which, from its vicinity, we have been long acquainted, becomes eminent or distinguishable in our eyes, even though, in itself, and compared with other things of the same kind, it is of no particular importance. A person, who resides near a very little town, speaks of it by the name of *the town*. Every clergyman, within his own parish, is called *the minister*, or *the parson* ; and if, in a village, there be but one barber, or one smith, his neighbours think they distinguish him sufficiently by calling him *the smith*, or *the barber*. A tree, a rock, a hill, a river, a meadow, may be spoken of in the same manner, with the same emphasis. He is not returned from *the hill* ; he is bathing in *the river* ; I saw him on the top of *the rock* ; shall we walk in *the meadow* ? A branch is blown down from *the tree*. In these examples the definite article is used,—because the thing spoken of, being in the neighbourhood, is well known, and a matter of some consequence to the people, who are acquainted with it.

That we may perceive, still more clearly, the nature and significance of the articles, let us put the one for the other, and mark the effect. When it is said, that “ the ancestors of the present royal family were kings in England three hundred years before *the* conqueror,” the sense is clear ; as every body knows, that the person here spoken of, by the name of *the conqueror*, is William, duke of Normandy, who subdued England about seven hundred and fifty years ago. But if we say, that, “ the ancestors of the present royal family were kings in England three hundred years before *a* conqueror,” we speak nonsense. Again, when it is said, that, “ health is *a* most desirable thing,” there is no man, who will not acquiesce in the position ; which only means, that health is *one* of those things, that are to be very much desired. But if we take the other article, and say, “ Health is *the* most desirable thing,” we change the position from truth to falsehood ; for this would imply, that nothing is so desirable as health ; which is very wide of the truth, virtue and a good conscience being of infinitely greater value.

On the whole, as articles are, by their nature, definitives, it follows of course, that they cannot be united with such words, as are, in their own nature, *as definite as may be* ; (the personal pronouns for instance :) nor with such words as, *being undefinable, cannot properly be made otherwise* ; (as the interrogative pronouns :) but only with those words, which, *though indefinite, are yet capable, by means of the article, of becoming definite.*

LECTURE III.—OF ADJECTIVES.

SECTION 1.—Of the Nature of Adjectives.

This part of speech may, not improperly, be called the *adnoun* ; since it is a word added to a noun to modify the signification of the noun ; as an adverb is a word added to a verb to modify the signification of the verb. An adjective is merely the name of an object, with an intimation that the idea, expressed by it, is to be added to the idea expressed by the following noun ; as, *A golden ring*. Here the adjective, *golden*, is the name of the object, *gold*, denoting by the annexation of the syllable, *en*, that the idea expressed by the word, *gold*, is to be added to the idea expressed by the noun, *ring*. So, in the phrases, *a silken cord*, *a woollen string*, *Persian literature*, *African slavery*. This intimation

of annexation is not, indeed, always given by adding a syllable or a letter to the word to be *adjectived* ; it is sometimes made by changing the form of the adjectived name ; as, *Chinese, Asiatic Spanish, French* ; sometimes by adding a hyphen ; as, *sea-weed, broom-corn, lime-water* ; and sometimes by mere juxtaposition ; as, *wine vessel, corn field, meadow ground* ;—but it is more frequently contained in the form of the expression ; as, a *good boy, a wise man, a strong horse, a sweet apple*. In these examples, the words, *good, wise, strong, and sweet*, contain the names of qualities, with an intimation, that these qualities are connected with the objects denoted by the nouns, *boy, man, horse, and apple* ; for if, in pronouncing these phrases, we were to stop at the adjectives, and say a *good*—a *wise*—&c. our hearers would very naturally ask, a *good*—what ? a *wise*—what ? &c. clearly signifying that the ideas we had expressed contained an intimation, that they were to be added to others expected to follow. This is further evident from the fact, that when we wish to speak of these qualities, *separately considered*, we add the syllable. *ness*, to the words denoting them ; as, *goodness, sweetness* ; or otherwise change the form of the word ; as, *wisdom, strength*.

From what has been said, it appears to follow that the idea expressed by the adjective is subordinate to that expressed by the noun ; and that the former must be of the same gender, number and case with the latter. Accordingly, in most languages where the noun is varied to express the distinctions of gender, number, and case, we find the adjective varied in like manner ; as in Latin. *bonus puer*, a good boy, *bona puella*, a good girl ; *boni pueri*, good-boys, *bonæ puellæ*, good girls. But the English language, with admirable simplicity, rejects this encumbrance and leaves the gender, &c. of the adjective to be determined by those of the noun ; thus we say a *good boy, a good girl, good boys good girls*, without any variation of the adjective whatever. Yet even in English, when the adjective does express either gender or number, it cannot be correctly added to a noun, which expresses a different gender or number. We can say, with propriety, a *man servant* ; because, though the adjective, *man*, denotes the masculine gender, yet the noun, *servant*, does not express either masculine or feminine ; and there is therefore no disagreement, with respect to gender, between the adjective and the noun. But we cannot say a *man woman, a man maid, or a man girl*. So in regard to number, when the adjective denotes either singular or plural, it must be associated with nouns of the same number ; as, *man servant, men servants ; one horse, two horses, &c.*

But in general, the adjective is not varied on account of gender, number, or case ; the principal variation, which it admits, being that of the degrees of comparison.

Adjectives denoting *number*, are called *numeral* adjectives ; as, *one, two, three, &c.* those denoting *order*, are called *ordinal* adjectives ; as, *first, second, third, &c.*

Adjectives appear to answer one purpose in common with the articles ; they also serve to limit and define the signification of the noun ; as, a *good man* is a much more limited expression than a *man*. Sometimes we find several adjectives added to the same noun ; as, a *cheerful, good, old man* ; a *new, silver, tea spoon*.

SECTION 2.—Of the Degrees or Forms of Comparison.

Grammarians have generally enumerated three degrees of comparison ; but the first of them has been thought, by some writers, to be, improperly, termed a degree of comparison ; as it seems to be nothing more than the simple form of the adjective, and not to imply either comparison or degree. This opinion may be well founded, unless the adjective be supposed to imply comparison or de-

gree, by containing a secret or general reference to other things ; as, when we say, " he is a *tall* man," " this is a *fair* day," we make some reference to the ordinary size of men, and to different weather.

The termination, *ish*, may be accounted, in some sort, a degree of comparison, by which the signification is diminished below the positive ; as, *black*, *blackish*, or tending to blackness ; *salt*, *saltish*, or having a little taste of salt.

The word *rather* is very properly used to express a small degree, or excess of quality ; as, " She is *rather* profuse in her expenses."

Dissyllables ending in *y* ; as, *happy*, *lovely* ; and in *le* after a mute, as, *able*, *ample* ; or accented on the last syllable, as, *discreet*, *polite* ; easily admit of *er* and *est* ; as, *happier*, *happiest* ; *abler*, *ablest* ; *politer*, *politest*. Words of more than two syllables hardly ever admit of those terminations.

In some words the superlative is formed by adding the adverb *most* to the end of them ; as, *nearest*, *utmost*, or *utmost*. *undermost*, *uppermost*, *foremost*.

In English, as in most languages, there are some words of very common use, (in which the caprice of custom is apt to get the better of analogy,) that are irregular in this respect ; as, "*good*, *better*, *best* ; *bad*, *worse*, *worst* ; *little*, *less*, *least* ; *much* or *many*, *more*, *most* ; *near*, *nearer*, *nearest* or *next* ; *late*, *later*, *latest* or *last* ; *old*, *older* or *elder*, *oldest* or *eldest* ;" and a few others.

SECTION 3.—Remarks on the Subject of Comparison.

If we consider the subject of comparison attentively, we shall perceive that the degrees of it are infinite in number, or at least indefinite.—A mountain is larger than a mile ;—by how many degrees ? How much bigger is the earth than a grain of sand ? By how many degrees was Socrates wiser than Alcibiades ? or by how many is snow whiter than this paper ? It is plain, that to these and the like questions, no *definite* answers can be returned.

In quantities, however, that may be *exactly* measured, the degrees of excess may be exactly ascertained. A foot is just twelve times as long as an inch ; and an hour is sixty times the length of a minute. But, in regard to *qualities*, and to those quantities, which cannot be measured exactly, it is impossible to say how many degrees may be comprehended in the comparative excess.

But though these degrees are infinite or indefinite in fact, they cannot be so in language ; nor would it be convenient, if language were to express many of them. In regard to unmeasured quantities and qualities, the degrees of more and less, (besides those marked above,) may be expressed intelligibly, at least, if not accurately, by certain adverbs, or words of like import ; as, " Socrates was *much* wiser than Alcibiades ;" " Snow is a *great deal* whiter than this paper ;" " Epaninondas was *by far* the most accomplished of the Thebans ;" " The evening star is a *very* splendid object, but the sun is *incomparably* more splendid ;" " The Deity is *infinitely* greater, than the greatest of his creatures." The inaccuracy of these, and the like expressions, is not a material inconvenience ; and, if it were, it is unavoidable ; for human speech can only express human thought ; and where thought is necessarily inaccurate, language must be so too.

When the word *very*, *exceedingly*, or any other of similar import, is put before the positive, it is called by some writers the superlative of eminence, to distinguish it from the other superlative, which has been already mentioned, and is called the superlative of comparison. Thus, *very eloquent*, is termed the superlative of eminence ; *most eloquent*, the superlative of comparison. In the superlative of eminence, something of comparison is however, remotely or indirectly intimated ; for we cannot reasonably call a man *very* eloquent, without comparing his eloquence with the eloquence of other men.

The comparative may be so employed, as to express the same pre-eminence, or inferiority as the superlative. Thus, the sentence, "Of all acquirements, virtue is the *most valuable*," conveys the same sentiment as the following; "Virtue is *more valuable* than any other acquirement."

When we properly use the comparative degree, the objects compared are set in *direct opposition*, and the one is not considered as a part of the other, or as comprehended under it. If I say, "Cicero was more eloquent than the Romans," I speak absurdly; because it is well known, that of the class of men expressed by the word *Romans*, Cicero was one. But when I assert, that "Cicero was more eloquent than all the *other* Romans," or "than any other Roman," I do not speak absurdly; for though the persons spoken of were all of the same class, or city, yet Cicero is here set in contradistinction to the rest of his countrymen, and is not considered as one of the persons, with whom he is compared. Moreover, if the Psalmist had said, "I am the wisest of my teachers," the phrase would have been improper, because it would imply, that he was one of his teachers. But when he says, "I am wiser than my teachers," he does not consider himself one of them, but places himself in contradistinction to them. So also, in the expression, "Eve was the fairest of her daughters," the same species of impropriety is manifested; since the phrase supposes, that Eve was one of her own daughters. Again, in the sentence, "Solomon was the wisest of men," Solomon is compared with a kind of beings, of whom he himself was one, and therefore the superlative is used. But the expression, "Solomon was of all men the wiser," is nonsense; because the use of the comparative would imply, that Solomon was set in opposition to mankind; which is so far from being the case, that he is expressly considered as one of the species.

As there are some qualities, which admit of comparison, so there are others which admit of none. Such, for example, are those, which denote the quality of bodies arising from their figure; as, when we say, "a *circular* table; a *quadrangular* court; a *conical* piece of metal," &c. The reason is, that a million of things, participating the same figure, participate it equally, if they do at all. To say, therefore, that, while A. and B. are both quadrangular, A. is more or less quadrangular than B. is absurd. The same holds true in all attributes, denoting *definitive quantities*, of whatever nature. Thus the *two foot* rule, C. cannot be *more a two foot rule*, than any other of the same length. For as there can be no comparison without *intension*, or *remission*, and as there can be no intension or remission in *things always definite*, these attributives can admit of no comparison. By the same method of reasoning we discover the cause why no substantive is susceptible of these degrees of comparison. A mountain cannot be said more to be or exist, than a mole hill; but the more, or less must be sought for in their qualities.

LECTURE IV.—OF NOUNS.

SECTION 1.—Of Nouns in general.

Nouns are the names of things. The name of every thing that exists, or of which we can form any notion, is a noun. Thus, *London*, *John*, *tree*, are the names of objects, which have existence; *virtue*, *vice*, *benevolence*, are the names of objects, that we can think of, as existing. These names are naturally divided into two sorts; *proper names*, or names *appropriated* to individuals, as, *John*, *Thomas*;—and *common names*, or names *common* to a whole class of individuals; as, *man*, *book*, *tree*.

Contemplating the objects around us, we observe that many of them have several properties in common with each other; thus, all *men* resemble each other in several respects; *man* is therefore a *common* noun, or a name *common* to a whole class of beings. When we have occasion frequently to designate an indi-

vidual and to point him out as distinct from the class to which he belongs, we appropriate to him a particular name; thus, a father gives or appropriates to one of his children the name, *John*; to another, *Thomas*, &c. and these are therefore called *proper nouns*.

When proper nouns have an article prefixed to them, they are used as common nouns; as, "He is *the Cicero* of his age; He is reading the lives of *the twelve Cæsars*."

Common nouns may also be used to signify individuals, by the addition of articles or pronouns; as, "*The boy* is studious; *That girl* is discreet."

Nouns may also be divided into the following classes; *Collective nouns*, or nouns of multitude; as, the *people*, the *army*, the *assembly*;—*Abstract nouns*, or the names of qualities separately considered; as, *knowledge*, *goodness*, *whiteness*;—*Verbal or participial nouns*; as, *beginning*, *reading*, *writing*.

SECTION 2.—Of Gender.

When using nouns, we have sometimes occasion to distinguish the sex of objects, or to signify whether the object, of which we are speaking, is male or female. This we sometimes do by a change in the termination of the name of the object; as, actor, actress; poet, poetess; sometimes by using a different name; as, man, woman; father, mother; and sometimes by prefixing some characteristic mark of sex to the same noun; as man-servant, maid-servant; a he-goat, a she-goat; and this is what is meant by the *gender* of nouns. *Gender* is that variation or change in the name, which denotes the sex of the object signified by the name.

Some nouns, naturally neuter, are, by a figure of speech, converted into the masculine or feminine gender; as, when we say of the sun, *he* is setting; and of a ship, *she* sails well.

Figuratively, in the English tongue, we commonly give the masculine gender to nouns, which are conspicuous for the attributes of imparting or communicating, and which are by nature strong and efficacious. Those, again, are made feminine, which are conspicuous for the attributes of containing or bringing forth, or which are peculiarly beautiful or amiable. Upon these principles, the sun is said to be masculine; and the moon, being the receptacle of the sun's light, to be feminine. The earth is generally feminine. A ship, a country, a city, &c. are likewise made feminine, being receivers or containers. Time is always masculine, on account of its mighty efficacy. Virtue is feminine from its beauty, and its being the object of love. Fortune and the church are generally put in the feminine gender.

There appears to be a rational foundation for these figurative distinctions, though they have not been adopted in all countries. Many of the substances, which, in our language, have masculine names, have, in others, names, that are feminine.

Greek and Latin, and many of the modern tongues have nouns, some masculine, some feminine, which denote substances, where sex never had existence.—Nay, some languages are so particularly defective in this respect, as to class every object, inanimate as well as animate, under either the masculine or feminine gender, as they have no neuter gender for those, which are of neither sex.—This is the case with the Hebrew, French, Italian, and Spanish. But the English, strictly following the order of nature, puts every noun, which denotes a male animal and no other, in the masculine gender; every name of a female animal, in the feminine gender; and the name of every animal, whose sex is not obvious, or known, as well as of every inanimate object whatever, in the neuter gender. And this gives our language a superior advantage, to most others, in the poetical and rhetorical style; for when nouns, naturally neuter, are con-

verted into masculine and feminine, the personification is more distinctly more forcibly marked.

The English language has three methods of distinguishing the sex, viz.

1. By different words; as,

Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
Bachelor.	Maid.	Husband.	Wife.
Boar.	Sow.	King.	Queen.
Boy.	Girl.	Lad.	Lass.
Brother.	Sister.	Lord.	Lady.
Buck.	Doe.	Man.	Woman.
Bull.	Cow.	Master.	Mistress.
Bullock or	} Heifer.	Milster.	Spawner.
Steer.		Nephew.	Niece.
Cock.	Hen.	Ram.	Ewe.
Dog.	Bitch.	Singer.	{ Songstress or Singer.
Drake.	Duck.		
Earl.	Countess.	Sloven.	Slut.
Father.	Mother.	Son.	Daughter.
Friar.	Nun.	Stag.	Hind.
Gander.	Goose.	Uncle.	Aunt.
Hart.	Roe.	Wizard.	Witch.
Horse.	Mare.		

2. By a difference of termination; as,

Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
Abbot.	Abbess.	Landgrave.	Landgravine.
Actor.	Actress.	Lion.	Lioness.
Administrator.	Administratrix.	Marquis.	Marchioness.
Adulterer.	Adulteress.	Master.	Mistress.
Ambassador.	Ambassadress.	Mayor.	Mayoress.
Arbiter.	Arbitress.	Patron.	Patroness.
Baron.	Baroness.	Peer.	Peeress.
Bridegroom.	Bride.	Poet.	Poetess.
Benefactor.	Benefactress.	Priest.	Priestess.
Caterer.	Cateress.	Prince.	Princess.
Chauter.	Chantress.	Prior.	Prioress.
Conductor.	Conductress.	Prophet.	Prophetess.
Count.	Countess.	Protector.	Protectress.
Deacon.	Deaconess.	Shepherd.	Shepherdess.
Duke.	Dutchess.	Songster.	Songstress.
Elector.	Electress.	Sorcerer.	Sorceress.
Emperor.	Empress.	Sultan.	{ Sultaness. Sultana.
Enchanter.	Enchantress.		
Executor.	Executrix.	Tiger.	Tigress.
Governor.	Governess.	Traitor.	Traitress.
Heir.	Heiress.	Tutor.	Tutoress.
Hero.	Heroine.	Viscount.	Viscountess.
Hunter.	Huntress.	Votary.	Votatress.
Host.	Hostess.	Widower.	Widow.
Jew.	Jewess.		

3. By a noun, pronoun, or adjective, being *prefixed* to the substantive; as,

A cock-sparrow.	A hen-sparrow.
A man-servant.	A maid-servant.
A he-goat.	A she-goat.
A he-bear.	A she-bear.
A male-child.	A female-child.
Male descendants.	Female descendants.

It sometimes happens, that the same noun is either masculine or feminine. The words, *parent, child, cousin, friend, neighbour, servant*, and several others are used indifferently for males, or females. These words cannot properly be said to denote a distinct species of gender, as some writers on English grammar have asserted; and who denominate them the *common gender*. The

no such gender belonging to the language. The business of parsing can be effectually performed, without having recourse to a *common* gender. Thus we may say; *Parents* is a noun of the masculine and female gender; *Parent*, if doubtful, is of the masculine, or feminine gender; and *Parent*, if the gender is known by the construction, is of the gender so ascertained.

Nouns with variable terminations contribute to conciseness and perspicuity of expression. We have only a sufficient number of them to make us feel our want; for when we say of a woman, she is a philosopher, an astronomer, a builder, a weaver, we perceive an impropriety in the termination, which we cannot avoid; but we can say, that she is a botanist, a student, a witness, a scholar, an orphan, a companion, because these terminations have not annexed to them the notion of sex.

SECTION 3.—Of Number.

We also frequently have occasion to designate whether the name we use is intended to signify *one object*, or *more objects than one*. This is generally done by adding an *s* to the name *singular*; and the variation (whatever it may be,) in the name, in order to mark that distinction, is called *Number*. In grammar, *Number* is that variation in the name, which denotes whether the name is intended to signify *one* or *more*. The term, *Singular*, means *one*; *Plural* means *more than one*.

Some nouns, from the nature of the things which they express, are used only in the singular form; as, *wheat, pitch, gold, sloth, pride, &c.* others only in the plural form; as, *bellows, scissors, lungs, riches, &c.*

Some words are the same in both numbers; as, *deer, sheep, swine, &c.*

Nouns which end in *o*, have sometimes *es*, added in the plural; as, *cargo, echo, hero, negro, manifesto, potato, volcano, wo*;—and sometimes only *s*; as, *folio, nuncio, punctilio, seraglio*.

Nouns ending in *f*, or *fe*, are rendered plural by the change of those terminations into *ves*; as, *loaf, loaves; half, halves; wife, wives*; except *grief, relief, reproof*, and several others, which form the plural by the addition of *s*. Those which end in *ff*, have the regular plural; as, *ruff, ruffs*; except *staff, staves*.

Nouns which have *y* in the singular, with no other vowel in the same syllable, change it into *ies* in the plural; as *beauty, beauties; fly, flies*. But the *y* is not changed, where there is another vowel in the syllable; as, *key, keys; delay, delays; attorney, attorneys*.

Some nouns become plural by changing the *a* of the singular into *e*; as, *man, men; woman, women; alderman, aldermen*. The words, *ox* and *child*, form *oxen* and *children*; *brother* makes either *brothers*, or *brethren*. Sometimes the diphthong *oo*, is changed into *ee* in the plural; as, *foot, feet; goose, geese; tooth, teeth*. *Louse* and *mouse* make *lice* and *mice*. *Penny* makes *pence*, or *pennies*, when the coin is meant;—*die, dice* (for play); *die, dies* (for coining).

It is agreeable to analogy, and the practice of the generality of correct writers, to construe the following words as plural nouns; *pains, riches, alm*; and also, *mathematics, metaphysics, politics, ethics, optics, pneumatics*, with other similar names of sciences.

Dr. Johnson says that the adjective *much*, is sometimes a term of number, as well as of quality. This may account for the instances we meet with of its associating with *pains* as a plural noun; as, “much pains.” The connexion, however, is not to be recommended.

The word, *news*, is almost universally considered as belonging to the singular number.

The noun, *means*, is used both in the singular and the plural number.

As a general rule for the use of the word, *means*, as either singular or plural

it would render the construction less vague, and the expression, therefore, ambiguous, were we to employ it as singular, when the mediation or instrumentality of one thing is implied; and, as plural, when two or more mediating cases are referred to. "He was careful to observe what means were employed, his adversaries, to counteract his schemes." Here *means* is properly joined with a plural verb, several methods of counteracting being signified. "The King consented; and, by *this* means, all hope of success was lost." Here *this* one mediating circumstance is implied; and the noun is, therefore, used as singular.

The following words, which have been adopted from the Hebrew, Greek, and Latin languages, are thus distinguished, with respect to number.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Cherub.	Cherubim.	Datum.	Data.
Seraph.	Seraphim.	Effluvia.	Effluvia.
Antithesis.	Antitheses.	Encomium.	{ Encomia or
Automaton.	Automata.		{ Encomiums.
Basis.	Bases.	Erratum.	Errata.
Crisis.	Crises.	Genius.	Genii.*
Criterion.	Criteria.	Genus.	Genera.
Diæresis.	Diæreses.	Index.	{ Indices or
Ellipsis.	Ellipses.		{ Indexes.†
Emphasis.	Emphases.	Lamina.	Laminae.
Hypothesis.	Hypotheses.	Medium.	Media.
Metamorphosis.	Metamorphoses.	Magus.	Magi.
Phænomenon.	Phænomena.	Memorandum.	{ Memoranda or
Appendix.	{ Appendices or		{ Memorandums.
	{ Appendixes.	Radius.	Radii.
Arcanum.	Arcana.	Stamen.	Stamina.
Axis.	Axes.	Stratum.	Strata.
Calx.	Calces.	Vortex.	Vortices.

Some words, derived from the learned languages, are confined to the plural number; as, *antipodes, credenda, literati, minutiae*.

The following nouns being, in Latin, both singular and plural, are used in the same manner when adopted into our tongue; *hiatus, apparatus, series, speci-*

SECTION 4.—Of Person,

Again, nouns are distinguished, as names of the persons *speaking*, names of the persons *spoken to*, and names of the persons *spoken of*; and this distinction is called *Person*. The name of the *speaker* is in the *first* person; the name of the person *addressed*, in the *second* person; and the name of the person *spoken of* is in the *third* person. Of course, nouns have three distinctions of person. Nouns indeed are generally used in the third person; sometimes, in the second; and but rarely in the first person;—and in *all* cases their person known or determined, not by any change or variation in the noun, but merely by the character of the object denoted by the noun, as *speaking, spoken to, spoken of*. Now, when we *speak of* any object, we are obliged to *name* that object, in order that it may be known of what we are speaking; therefore when an object is first mentioned in discourse, it is always *named*, unless it is present and already known; in speaking of it afterwards, we refer to it by using the pronoun, *he, she* or *it*; which pronouns mean simply *the said*, that is, *the said object before mentioned or referred to*. But when the *first* person addresses the *second*, there is no necessity of *naming* either, because there is no possi-

* *Genii*, when denoting aerial spirits; *Geniuses*, when signifying persons of genius.

† *Indexes*, when it signifies pointers, or Tables of contents; *Indices*, when referring to Algebraic quantities.

ty of mistake. In such cases, the personal pronouns, whose peculiar office is to mark the distinctions of person, are used as being shorter and more convenient. Nouns, therefore, are seldom, if ever, used in the first or second person, except, by way of repetition, for the sake of greater emphasis or solemnity ; as, "I, James Monroe, president of the United States of America, do hereby proclaim," &c. "Be grateful, children of men," that is, "Be ye grateful, ye children of men."

This circumstance appears to have led some grammarians into the mistaken notion, that nouns have but two persons, viz. the second and third. But besides the absurdity of supposing a *second* and *third* without a *first* person, this opinion does not appear to be well founded. If by the person of nouns is meant any variation in their form or termination, then it is clear that nouns have no person at all ; but if by person is meant nothing more than the distinction of nouns with regard to their character as being the names of the persons *speaking*, *spoken to*, or *spoken of*, then it is equally clear that nouns have three persons. Besides, it is generally admitted that pronouns, as their name imports, are words used *for* or *instead of* nouns ; and that, consequently, they have all which the nouns they represent, have, and nothing more. But if nouns have but two persons, and personal pronouns have three persons, it follows that there are pronouns, which are *not* pronouns, that is, *words used instead of nouns*. It must, therefore, either be admitted that nouns have three persons, or else some new character must be assigned to pronouns.

SECTION 5.—Of Case.

Case, the fourth distinction of nouns, regards merely their *state* or *situation*, or their relation to other words, in a sentence. *Case* signifies the *state* or *condition* of things.

The English language, to express different connexions and relations of one thing to another, uses, for the most part, prepositions. The Greek and Latin among the ancient, and some too among the modern languages, as the German, vary the termination or ending of the nouns to answer the same purpose ; an example of which, in the Latin, is inserted, as explanatory of the nature and use of cases, viz.

	Singular.		Plural.	
<i>Nominative.</i>	DOMINUS,	A Lord.	DOMINI,	Lords.
<i>Genitive.</i>	DOMINI,	Lord's of a Lord.	DOMIN- <i>orum</i> ,	Lords', of Lords.
<i>Dative.</i>	DOMINO,	To a Lord.	DOMINIS,	To Lords.
<i>Accusative.</i>	DOMINUM,	A Lord.	DOMINOS,	Lords.
<i>Vocative.</i>	DOMINE,	O Lord.	DOMINI,	O Lords.
<i>Ablative.</i>	DOMINO,	By a Lord.	DOMINIS,	By Lords.

In imitation of the above names of cases, the possessive case in English is sometimes called the *genitive* ; and the objective, the *accusative*.

Nominative Case. This case is called the *nominative* case, from *nomen*, *nominis*, a *name*,—because the *nominative* case is the primary, original form of names, or the *state* in which a *name* is always found, unless when its proper form is varied to denote its subordination to some other word in the sentence. In the Latin language, from which the term, *nominative*, is derived, this subordination of case is generally denoted by varying the termination of the name, as may be seen in the foregoing declension of *Dominus*. Thus also *Cicero*, the name of a distinguished Roman orator, is always written *Cicero*, when it is used merely as a *name* ; but when it is used to denote also the subordination of that name to some other word in the sentence, this *additional* circumstance is denoted by varying the termination of the name ; as, *Cicero*, *Cicronis*, *Cicroni*, *Cicronem*, &c. So in English, *Cicero* is in the *nominative* case, when used sim-

ply as the *name* of a person ; but when used to express also the subordinate character of a possessor, its form is generally varied to denote that circumstance ; as, "*Cicero* was eloquent ; *Cicero's eloquence* was admired." In the former of these examples, *Cicero* is in the *nominative* case, or in the *state* (form) peculiar to that name, unvaried by any circumstance of subordination ; and in the latter example, *eloquence* denotes the leading, principal idea, and *Cicero* is governed by it ; and this subordinate character is expressed by adding ('s) an apostrophe with the letter *s*, to the name, *Cicero*. The *nominative*, then, is the simple *state*, or form, of the *name*.

Possessive Case. This case is called *possessive*, because the noun in this form, denotes the *possessor* of a thing ; as, John's hat, Peter's cane. Here the words, *John's* and *Peter's*, besides being the names of persons, denote that those persons are the *possessors* of the objects signified by the nouns, *hat* and *cane*. This denotation of possession consists in the 's, which is called the *sign* of the possessive case ; which sign was anciently the syllable *is*, thus *Johannis* hat, *Peteris* cane ; and in modern use, the apostrophe denotes the omission of the *i*. When the *s* would occasion too much hissing in the pronunciation, we omit that also, retaining only the apostrophe ; as, For conscience' sake, For righteousness' sake.

When the thing to which another is said to belong, is expressed by a circumlocution, or by many terms, the sign of the possessive case is commonly added to the last term ; as, "The king of Great Britain's dominions."

Sometimes, though rarely, two nouns in the possessive case immediately succeed each other, in the following form ; "My friend's wife's sister ;" a sense which would be better expressed by saying, "the sister of my friend's wife ;" or, "my friend's sister in law." Some grammarians say, that in each of the following phrases, viz. "A book of my brother's," "A servant of the queen's," "A soldier of the king's" there are two possessive cases ; the first phrase implying, "one of the books of my brother," the next, "one of the servants of the queen ;" and the last, "one of the soldiers of the king." But as the preposition governs the objective case ; and as there are not, in each of these sentences, two apostrophes with the letter, *s*, coming after them, we cannot with propriety say, that there are two possessive cases.

Objective Case. The third case of nouns, in the English language, is called the *objective* case, because it denotes the *object* of a transitive verb, or of a preposition ; as John *assists* Charles ; He *resides in* Boston. This case does not vary in form from that of the *nominative* ; its subordinate relation to the governing word being sufficiently indicated by its situation in the sentence. Observing this coincidence of form and considering case as referring only to the termination of nouns, some writers have asserted, that, in English nouns have but two cases, the *nominative* and *possessive* ; but there appears to be great propriety in admitting a case in English nouns, which shall serve to denote the *objects* of transitive verbs and of prepositions ; and which is, therefore, properly termed the *objective case*. The general idea of case doubtless has a reference to the termination of the noun ; but there are many instances, both in Greek and Latin, in which the *nominative* and *accusative* cases have precisely the same form, and are distinguished only by the relation they bear to other words in the sentence. We are therefore warranted, by analogy, in applying this principle to our own language, as far as utility, and the idiom of it, will admit. Now it is obvious, that in English, a noun governed by an active verb, or a preposition, is very differently circumstanced, from a noun in the *nominative*, or in the *possessive* case ; and that a comprehensive case, correspondent to that difference, must be useful and proper. The business of parsing, and of showing the connexion and dependence of words, will be most conveniently accomplished, by the

adoption of such a case; and the irregularity of having our nouns sometimes placed in a situation, in which they cannot be said to be in any case at all, will be avoided.

LECTURE V.—OF PRONOUNS.

SECTION 1.—Of Pronouns in general.

In the word, *Pronoun*, the syllable *pro* signifies *for* or *instead of*; the remaining syllable is *noun*; and the whole word signifies *for noun*. A pronoun is therefore very properly defined *a word used for a noun*; and the reason why it is so used, is to prevent a too frequent or disagreeable repetition of the noun. The use and importance of pronouns are well exemplified in the following sentence. "A woman went to a man, and told *him*, that *he* was in great danger of being murdered by a gang of robbers, *who* had made preparations for attacking *him*. *He* thanked *her* for *her* kindness; and, as *he* was unable to defend *himself*, *he* left *his* house, and went to a neighbour's." Now if there were no pronouns, we should be obliged to say. "A woman went to a man, and told the *man*, that the *man* was in great danger of being murdered by a gang of robbers; as a *gang of robbers* had made preparations for attacking the *man*. The *man* thanked the *woman* for the *woman's* kindness, and as the *man* was unable to defend the *man's* self, the *man* left the *man's* house, and went to a neighbour's."

But besides nouns, the pronoun is also used to represent an adjective, a sentence, a part of a sentence, and sometimes even a series of propositions; as, "They supposed him to be *innocent*, *which* he certainly was not." "His friend bore the abuse very patiently, *which* served to increase his rudeness; it produced at length, contempt and insolence."

SECTION 2.—Of Personal Pronouns.

The peculiar office of *personal*, as distinguished from other pronouns, is to mark the distinctions of person. The first personal pronoun, *I*, denotes "the immediate speaker," as distinguished from others by the circumstance of his being the *speaker*. The second, *thou*, denotes "the party addressed," as characterized by the present circumstance of his being *spoken to*. The third, *he, she, or it*, designates an individual by the circumstance of "having been lately mentioned," or "being much nearer to the thoughts both of the speaker and the hearer, than any other who could, on that occasion, be referred to by a similar circumstance."

The personal pronouns combine a great degree of generality in their use, with a well marked particularity in the instances of their application. *I* may be applied to any person, but only by one speaker; viz. that person himself.—The quarter from which the sound proceeds determines its exact application. In the same manner, *thou* may be applied to any individual, but only when that individual is particularly addressed, and this circumstance gives us on every occasion an unerring indication of its use. So *he* may be applied to any *man*, *she* to any *woman*, *it* to any *thing*, and by any individual. But they imply some previous mention of the object referred to, and this must be well understood, in order that their particular application may become intelligible. They have exactly the same meaning with the word "aforesaid."

Personal pronouns, being the representatives of nouns, have all the properties or distinctions, belonging to nouns; such as Gender, Number, Person and Case. The distinction of case is better marked by the pronouns than it is by the nouns;

because the objective case of the pronoun has in general a form different from that of the nominative, or the possessive case. Person and Number are also clearly designated; but the distinction of Gender is limited to third person singular. The persons speaking and spoken to, being at the same time the subjects of the discourse are supposed to be present; from which, and other circumstances, their sex is commonly known, and needs not be marked by a distinction of gender in the pronouns;—but the third person, or thing spoken of, being absent, and in many respects unknown, it is necessary that it should be marked by a distinction of gender; at least when some particular person or thing is spoken of, that ought to be more distinctly marked; accordingly the pronoun singular of the third person has the three genders, *he, she, it*.

The propriety of admitting *his, hers, ours, yours, &c.* as the possessive cases of the personal pronouns, has been disputed, though the nature and meaning of these words, and the concurrent practice of our first grammarians have assigned them this rank and denomination. It has been alledged, that these supposed possessives are actually used in the nominative and objective cases; and that therefore our classification must be erroneous. The instances, offered in support of this allegation, are such as the following; “My pleasures are past; *hers* and *yours* are to come.” “They applauded his conduct, but condemned *hers* and *yours*.” A little reflection will, however, show that these pronouns, in the examples produced, are not in the nominative and objective cases, but in the possessive case. The following appears to be the true construction of these sentences; “My pleasures are past; the pleasures *of her* and *of you* are to come.” “They applauded his conduct, but condemned the conduct *of her*, and *of you*.” That this is the right construction will more clearly appear, if we substitute nouns for the pronouns; “My pleasures are past; Mary’s and Ann’s are to come. They applauded his conduct, but condemned Mary’s and Ann’s;” that is, “Mary’s and Ann’s pleasures; Mary’s and Ann’s conduct.”

The objection, too, that the phrase, “An acquaintance of yours,” supposes the same word to admit of two different signs of the case, seems of no validity. Instances of a double possessive, as it is called, are not uncommon in our language, and they are far from implying any absurdity. We properly say, “An acquaintance of *Peter’s*; A soldier of the king’s.”

SECTION 3.—Of Relative Pronouns.

It has been supposed, that *Relative* pronouns comprehend the meaning of a pronoun and a conjunction copulative; (*See the Lecture on Conjunctions*;) but the author of the article GRAMMAR, in the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, ingeniously analyzes the relative into the preposition, *of*, preceding the pronouns, *he, she, it*, or their plurals, or oblique cases. When thus analyzed, this word, *of*, must govern, not the pronouns separately, which in fact are sometimes nominatives, but the subjoined sentences to which they belong. The phrase, “Men, *who* speak little, are esteemed prudent,” may be resolved into “Men, *of they* speak little,” &c. Readers, who are not accustomed to such analyses, and who regard the present habitudes of language as exclusively significant, may imagine that this analysis renders the sentence unmeaning. But, if we could suppose the preposition, *of*, to be one of those, which govern nouns and sentences indiscriminately, we should find that the uncouthness of the paraphrase does not render it unintelligible. To these the words, *before* and *after*, belong. We can say either, “before his dinner,” or “before he had dined.” It is sufficiently supposable, that our language might have been so constructed as to put it in our power to say, not only “the time of dinner,” but “the time *of he* dines;” and to say not only “men of few words,” but “men *of they* speak little.” In this paraphrase we shall have an intelligent analysis of the relative.:

relative pronoun, then, implies the meaning of the third personal pronoun, nothing more; it implies a mark that the sentence, of which it is the subjoined to a noun, and is thus an entire sentence with something added. It may be proper to remark, that the relative, together with the sense which it is the subject, limits or qualifies the signification of the word to which it is subjoined, as much as an adjective or the preposition, noting possession, does. Thus, "a virtuous man," "a man of virtue," "a man who is virtuous" are synonymous expressions. The relative pronoun, when used interrogatively, relates to a word or phrase, is not *antecedent*, but *subsequent* to the relative; and such word or phrase may, therefore, be properly called the *subsequent* to such relative. The use of *whose*, as the possessive case of *which*, is supported by good authority, as will be seen by the following examples.

—————" And the fruit
Of that forbidden tree, *whose* mortal taste
Brought death." MILTON.

—————" Pure the joy without allay,
Whose very rapture is tranquility." YOUNG.

" The lights and shades, *whose* well accorded strife
Gives all the strength and colour of our life." POPE.

is is one of the clearest characteristics of its being a religion, *whose* originative." BLAIR.

The use of this license, one word is substituted for three; as, "Philosophy end is to instruct us in the knowledge of nature," for "Philosophy, of *which* is to instruct us," &c.

which, and *what*. have sometimes the words, *soever* and *ever*, annexed to as, *whosoever* or *whoever*, *whichever* or *whichever*, *whatsoever* or *whatsoever* but they are seldom used in modern style.

The word, *that*, is sometimes a relative, sometimes a demonstrative pronoun, sometimes a conjunction. It is a relative, when it may be turned into *who* or *he* without destroying the sense; as, "They, *that* (who) reprove us, may be our best friends;" From every thing, *that* (which) you see, derive instruction.

It is a demonstrative pronoun, when it is followed immediately by a word which it is either joined or refers, and which it limits or qualifies; as, "The boy is industrious;" "*That* belongs to me;" meaning, that book, that, &c. It is a conjunction, when it joins sentences together, and may be turned into *who* or *which*, without destroying the sense; as, "Take care at every day be well employed." "I hope he will believe, *that* I have acted improperly." But it will be perceived, that *that*, when used as a conjunction, performs the same office with respect to the following sentence, as *who*, when used as demonstrative pronoun, with respect to the following sentence, as, "I know *that* man;" "I know *that* he does not understand me;" i. e. he does not understand me—I know *that*."

The word *whether* was formerly made use of to signify interrogation; as, "*Whether* of all I choose?" but it is now seldom used, the interrogative, *which*, being substituted for it. Some Grammarians think, that the use of it should be avoided, like *either* and *neither*, it points to the dual number; and would contravene our expressions concise and definite.

Writers have classed the interrogatives as a separate kind of pronouns; but they are too nearly related to the relative pronouns, both in nature and form, for such a division proper. They do not, in fact, lose the character of pronouns, when they become interrogatives. The only difference is, that *with* interrogation, the relatives have reference to a subject which is antecedent, finite, and known; *with* an interrogation, to a subject which is subse-

quent, indefinite, and unknown, and which it is expected, that the *answer* should express and ascertain."

SECTION 4.—Of Adjective Pronouns.

This class includes all such *pronouns* as are sometimes *added* to nouns like *adjectives*; and which are therefore called *adjective pronouns*, or *pronouns adjectival*. In the sentence, "Judas betrayed *his* master;" *his* is called a *pronoun adjective*; because it is used instead of the noun, *Judas* and because it is added to the noun, *master*, like an adjective. Adjective pronouns are therefore said to be of a mixed nature, participating of the properties both of pronouns and of adjectives.

Mine and *thine*, instead of *my* and *thy*, were formerly used before a substantive, or adjective, beginning with a vowel, or a silent *h*; as, "Blot out all *mine* iniquities."

The pronouns, *his*, *mine*, *thine*, have the same form, whether they are possessive pronouns, or the possessive cases of their respective personal pronouns.

A few examples will probably assist the learner, to distinguish the possessive pronouns from the possessive cases of their correspondent personal pronouns.

The following sentences exemplify the possessive pronouns.—"*My* lesson is finished; *Thy* books are defaced; He loves *his* studies; She performs *her* duty; We own *our* faults; *Your* situation is distressing; I admire *their* virtues."

The following are examples of the possessive cases of the personal pronouns. "This desk is *mine*; the other is *thine*; These trinkets are *his*; those are *hers*; This house is *ours*; and that is *yours*; *Theirs* is very commodious."

Some grammarians consider *its* as a possessive pronoun.

The two words *own* and *self*, are used in conjunction with pronouns. *Own* is added to possessives, both singular and plural; as, "*My own* hand, *our own* house." It is emphatical, and implies a silent contrariety or opposition; as, "I live in *my own* house." that is, "not in a hired house." *Self* is added to possessives; as, *myself*, *yourselves*; and sometimes to personal pronouns; as, *himself*, *itself*, *themselves*. It then, like *own*, expresses emphasis and opposition; as, "I did this *myself*," that is, "not another;" or it forms a reciprocal pronoun; as, "We hurt *ourselves* by vain rage."

Himself, *themselves*, are now used in the nominative case, instead of *hisself*, *theirselves*; as, "He came *himself*;" "He *himself* shall do this;" "They performed it *themselves*."

Each relates to two or more persons or things, and signifies either of the two, or every one of any number taken separately.

Every relates to several persons or things, and signifies each one of them all taken separately. This pronoun was formerly used apart from its noun, but it is now constantly annexed to it, except in legal proceedings; as, in the phrase, "all and *every* of them."

Either relates to two persons or things taken separately, and signifies the one or the other. To say, "either of the three," is therefore improper.

Neither imports "*not either*;" that is, not one nor the other; as, "*Neither* of my friends was there."

This refers to the nearest person or thing; and *that* to the most distant; as, "*This* man is more intelligent than *that*." *This* indicates the latter or last mentioned; *that*, the former or first mentioned; as, "Both wealth and poverty are temptations; *that* tends to excite pride; *this*, discontent."

The words, *former* and *latter*, may be properly ranked amongst the demonstrative pronouns, especially in many of their applications. The following sentence may serve as an example; "It was happy for the state, that Fabius continued in the command with Minucius; the *former's* phlegm was a check upon the *latter's* vivacity."

Of the indefinite pronouns, only the words *one* and *other* are varied. *One* has a possessive case, which it forms in the same manner as nouns; as, *one, one's*. This word has a general signification, meaning people at large; and sometimes also a peculiar reference to the person, who is speaking; as, "*One* ought to pity the distresses of mankind." "*One* is apt to love *one's* self." This word is often used, by good writers, in the plural number; as, "The great *ones* of the world;" "The boy wounded the old bird, and stole the young *ones*;" "My wife and the little *ones* are in good health."

The plural, *others*, is only used when apart from the noun to which it refers, whether expressed or understood; as, "When you have perused these papers, I will send you the *others*." "He pleases some, but he disgusts *others*." When this pronoun is joined to nouns, either singular or plural, it has no variation; as, "the other man," "the other men."

The following phrases may serve to exemplify the indefinite pronouns.—"*Some* of you are wise and good;" "A few of them were idle, the *others* industrious;" "Neither is there *any* that is unexceptionable;" "*One* ought to know *one's* own mind;" "They were *all* present;" "*Some* are happy, while *others* are miserable."

The word *another* is composed of the indefinite article prefixed to the word *other*.

None is used in both numbers; as, "none is so deaf as he that will not hear;" "*None* of those are equal to these." It seems originally to have signified, according to its derivation, *not one*, and therefore to have had no plural; but there is good authority for the use of it, in the plural number; as, "*None* that go unto her return again." *Prov.* ii. 19. "Terms of peace were *none* vouchsaf'd." MILTON. "*None* of them are varied to express the gender." "*None* of them have different endings for the numbers." LOWTH'S *Introduction*.—"None of their productions are extant." BLAIR.

We have endeavoured to explain the nature of the adjective pronouns, and to distinguish and arrange them intelligibly; but it is difficult, perhaps impracticable, to define and divide them in a manner perfectly unexceptionable.—Some of them, in particular, may seem to require a different arrangement. We presume, however, that, for every useful purpose, the present classification is sufficiently correct. All the pronouns, except the personal and relative, may indeed, in a general view of them, be considered as *definite* pronouns, because they define or ascertain the extent of the common name, or general term, to which they refer, or are joined; but as each class of them does this, more or less exactly, or in a manner peculiar to itself, a division adapted to this circumstance appears to be suitable to the nature of things, and the understanding of learners.

LECTURE VI.—OF VERBS.

SECTION 1.—Of the Nature and Classification of Verbs.

Of all the constituent parts of speech, says the writer on Grammar in the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, none has given the grammarians greater trouble than the verb. The vast variety of circumstances, which it blends together in one word, throws very considerable difficulties in the way of him, who undertakes to analyze it, and ascertain its nature; at the same time that, by its eminent use in language, it is entitled to all the attention, which can be bestowed upon it.

The author of the *Diversions of Purley* considers the verb as containing a noun, and something more; and he proposes it as a question worthy of the attention of philosophers, what is that circumstance which, when added to the name of an idea, makes it a verb? The answer to this, in so far as the indica-

tive and perhaps every other form of the verb, except the infinitive and the participle, are concerned, is, that it contains a sign of asserted connexion betwixt the object expressed by that noun or name and some other object, which is also mentioned in the sentence. Thus when we say, *John walks*, the word *walks* contains the name of a particular motion, at the same time that it expresses a connexion betwixt that motion and the object denoted by the word, *John*.

On the whole, it appears probable, that verbs were originally the names of things, used not merely as *names*, but as expressing the *operations* or *active qualities* of things; as, to *eye*, to *hear*, to *kiss*. (*osculari* from *oscula* the *lips*.) to *handle*, to *mind*, to *fan*, to *whip*, to *plough*. &c.—and that verbs, when associated with nominatives in a sentence, assert or imply a connexion betwixt those nominatives and the actions signified by the verbs; as, “The hawk *eyes* the chickens, the soldier *handles* his musket, the man *minds* his own affairs, the lady *fans* herself, the coachman *whips* his horses, the farmer *ploughs* his fields, &c.

VERBS ACTIVE, PASSIVE, AND NEUTER. This classification of the verbs may be explained by observing, that a verb is called *active*, when it asserts that its nominative is active, that is, performs the action denoted by the verb; *passive*, when it asserts that its nominative is passive, that is, endures or receives the action denoted by the verb; and *neuter*, when it asserts merely that its nominative *exists*, or that it exists in a certain state, and consequently is *neither* active nor passive. Thus in the examples, “John walks, Thomas runs,” *walks* and *runs* are all called *active* verbs, because they express the *actions* of their nominatives, *John* and *Thomas*. So in the phrases, “The man was killed, the boy was beaten,” *was killed* and *was beaten*, are called *passive* verbs, because they express the actions *endured* or *received* by the nominatives, *man* and *boy*. Also, in, “He is, we sleep, they stand,” *is*, *sleep* and *stand*, are called *neuter* verbs, because they express *neither* the action nor the passion of their nominatives, *he*, *we* and *they*, but simply their existence, or state of existence. (This mode of explanation is indeed rather illogical and defective; in as much as it resorts to a different part of speech, the nominative, to ascertain the character of the verb, and as it applies neither to the infinitive mood nor the participle—these forms of the verb having no nominatives. But as this account of the different sorts of verbs is concise and easily understood, it may be preferred, in a work for youth, to a more laboured or philosophical explanation.) In its original application, the word *passion* signified a *suffering* or *enduring*. Thus the *crucifixion* of our Saviour is called his *passion*, that is, his *suffering* on the cross. From *passion* is derived *passive*; and hence the *name* of this class of verbs.—But *passive* is now used to signify the receiving of any kind of action or impression whatever.

VERBS TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE. The term *transitive* means *passing over*; and *intransitive* means *not passing over*. A transitive verb therefore is one, which denotes that the action of its nominative *passes over* to some object, expressed or understood; as, “Brutus *killed* Cæsar, Cain *smote* Abel.” Some transitive verbs do not in reality express any transition of *action* from the subject to the object of the verb; as, “He *resembles* me; I *understand* him; They *believed* her;” and many others;—but, in such instances, the verb denotes a rapid transition of *thought* from the verb to its object, and a close connexion between them. Hence a preposition cannot be inserted betwixt a transitive verb and its object without destroying the sense. We cannot properly say, “He resembles *to* me.” An intransitive verb denotes the action as *not passing over*, but as confined to the nominative; as, “John *walks*, Thomas *runs*,” where the actions of *walking* and *running* are limited to the nominatives, *John* and *Thomas*. And here we perceive, that the *intransitive* verb requires a preposition to be inserted between the verb and the following noun. We cannot properly say, “John walks *the* ground; Thomas runs *the* bridge;” but

"John walks *on* the ground, Thomas runs *over* the bridge." The term intransitive, implies action; and therefore cannot, with propriety, be applied to neuter verbs.

Many active verbs are used both in a transitive and an intransitive signification, the construction only determining of which kind they are; as, *to flatten*, signifying *to make even*, or *level*, is an active transitive verb; but when it signifies *to grow dull*, or *insipid*, it is an active intransitive verb.

An active intransitive verb, by the addition of a preposition, may become a compound active transitive verb. *To smile*, is an active intransitive verb; it cannot, therefore, be followed by an objective case, nor be construed as a passive verb. We cannot say, *she smiled him*, or *he was smiled*; but, *to smile on*, being a compound active transitive verb, we may properly say, *she smiled on him*, *he was smiled on* by fortune, in every undertaking.

Active intransitive verbs are sometimes construed in the passive form; as, "I am come; He is arrived; She was gone; It is grown;" &c. but the regularity and propriety of such constructions are questionable. "I have come; He has arrived; She has gone; It has grown;" in the examples just cited, would be preferable to the forms of expressions there used. The regular passive verb can be formed only from the active transitive verb, because it denotes action received *from* one object and endured *by* another; that is, it denotes the *passing* of action from one object to another; which is directly opposed to the nature of intransitive verbs.

SECTION 2.—Of the Moods.

Mood signifies *manner* or *form*; and as applied to verbs, it means the various *manners* of expressing the action, passion, or being, denoted by the verb. Thus *walk thou*, *thou walkest*, *if thou walkest*, *thou canst walk*, *to walk* are various manners of expressing the action of walking, and these *manners* are called *moods*. Mood therefore consists in the changes, which the verb undergoes, to signify various intentions of the mind, and various modifications of action.

THE IMPERATIVE MOOD. The term, *imperative*, signifies *commanding*, or *expressive of command*. This form of the verb is generally used for *commanding*; as, "*Depart thou*;" and is therefore called the imperative mood; but it is also used for *exhorting*, *intreating*, or *permitting*; as, "*mind ye*; *let us stay*; *go in peace*."

It is a point in dispute among grammarians, whether imperatives are present or future; but in so far as the *form* of the verb (which is always the same) is concerned, this mood has no distinction of tense at all. If therefore any period of time is specified in imperative sentences, it is effected by means of some other word, as, *go now*, *go hereafter*, *go to-day*, *go to-morrow*; or to be inferred from the circumstance or occasion of giving the command, as, "Give me the book, bring me an apple."

THE INDICATIVE MOOD. This mood is called *indicative*, because the verb in this form is used simply to *indicate*, that is, to point out, or declare an action; as, "He loves, he is loved." Questions are asked either in the indicative or in the potential form; as, "Does he love? Is he loved? May I go? Must we die?"

THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD. *Subjunctive* is derived from *to subjoin*, which signifies *to add at the end*, or *to add afterwards*; and the verb in this form or mood is called *subjunctive*, because the sentence, in which it is contained, is *subjoined* or added to the end of another sentence; as, "I will perform the operation, *if he desires it*;" where the sentence, "*he desires it*," is *subjoined* by means of the conjunction, *if*, to the sentence, "I will perform the operation;" and the verb, *desires*, is therefore said to be in the *subjunctive* mood. This or-

der of the sentences is however often inverted, and then the subjunctive sentence is placed first ; as, " *If he desires it, I will perform the operation ;*" but the construction remains unaltered, and the conjunction, *if*, in fact still connects the sentences in the same manner as before. Also, the conjunction is frequently understood ; as, " *Were he good, he would be happy ; Hadst thou been here, our brother had not died ;*" that is, " *If he were good*"—" *If thou hadst been here,*" &c.

The subjunctive mood has been a fruitful theme of discussion and dispute among the writers on English grammar. Its nature and extent have been the subject of much controversy, and even its existence, in the English language, has been denied. Some grammarians apply what is called the *conjunctive termination* to the persons of the principal verb, and to its auxiliaries, through all the tenses of the subjunctive mood. But this is certainly contrary to the practice of good writers. Johnson applies this termination to the present and perfect tenses only. Lowth restricts it entirely to the present tense ; and Priestly confines it to the present and imperfect tenses. This difference of opinion amongst grammarians of such eminence may have contributed to that diversity of practice, so observable in the subjunctive mood. Uniformity in this point is highly desirable. It would materially assist both teachers and learners ; and would constitute a considerable improvement in our language. On this subject, we adopt the opinion of Dr. Lowth ; and conceive we are fully warranted by his authority, and that of the most correct and elegant writers, in limiting the conjunctive termination of the principal verb to the second and third persons singular of the *present tense*, and to the *present* and *imperfect* tenses of the verb, *be*, and of passive verbs.

The two forms of the subjunctive mood, and the respective variations of those forms from the indicative mood, are fully exemplified in the following *Scheme*.

IN THE ACTIVE VOICE.

Indic. Mood.

Subj. Mood, Indic. form.

Subj. Mood, varied form.

Present Tense.

I love,
Thou lovest,
He loves,

If I love,
If thou lovest,
If he loves.

If thou love,
If he love.

After the same manner, vary all verbs in the *Active Voice*, whether signifying actively or not.

IN THE VERB BE.

Present Tense.

I am,
Thou art,
He is.

If I am,
If thou art,
If he is,

If I be,
If thou be,
If he be,

We are,
Ye are,
They are.

If we are,
If ye are,
If they are.

If we be,
If ye be,
If they be.

Imperfect Tense.

I was,
Thou wast,
He was,
We were,
Ye were,
They were.

If I was,
If thou wast,
If he was,
If we were,
If ye were,
If they were.

If I were,
If thou wert,
If he were.

IN THE PASSIVE VOICE.

Present Tense.

loved.	If I am loved,	If I be loved,
art loved,	If thou art loved,	If thou be loved,
loved,	If he is loved,	If he be loved,
re loved,	If we are loved,	If we be loved,
e loved,	If ye are loved,	If ye be loved,
are loved.	If they are loved.	If they be loved.

Imperfect Tense.

loved,	If I was loved,	If I were loved,
wast loved,	If thou wast loved,	If thou wert loved,
as loved,	If he was loved,	If he were loved.
ere loved,	If we were loved,	_____
ere loved,	If ye were loved,	_____
were loved.	If they were loved.	_____

-For directions when to employ the indicative and when the varied form of the *ive Mood*, see *Syntax, Lecture on Verbs, Sec. 3.*

POTENTIAL MOOD. This mood is called *potential*, because the verb *orm* generally denotes the *power* or *possibility* of doing an action ; as, *walk*” denotes, that I have *power* to walk ; “ *You may go*,” you are at o go ; “ *I must go*,” I am *obliged* to go, &c. mood is conjugated as having only four tenses ; but it must be remem- at the present and imperfect tenses are often used to signify future time ; he come to-morrow, *I may speak* to him ;” “ *If he should or would* morrow, *I might, could, would, or should speak* to him.”

INFINITIVE MOOD. In the four preceding moods, the verb is always l by a nominative case expressed or understood, with which it *must* a- number and person, according to Rule VII. In those moods, therefore, is called *finite*, because it is *limited*, as to number and person, by its ive case. But in the Infinitive Mood the verb has no nominative case, sequently is *infinitive* or *unlimited*, as to its number and person. Hence led the infinitive or unlimited mood.

hall conclude these observations, with one remark, which may be useful ough scholar, namely, that as the Indicative Mood is converted into the ive, by the expression of a condition. motive, wish, supposition, &c. be- raded to it ; so the potential mood may, in like manner, be turned in- bjunctive ; as will be seen in the following examples ;—“ *If I could de- m. I should abhor it* ;” “ *Though he should increase in wealth, he would* haritable ;” “ *Even in prosperity he would gain no esteem, unless he* onduct himself better.”

SECTION 3.—*Of the Tenses.*

ference to time is inseparably connected with the narration of events, refore many parts of the verb are so contrived as to indicate, in their e or form, a connexion with some portion of time, in contradistinction er ; as, *walk, walked, have walked, &c.* The point of reference, natu- st assumed, is the instant in which the sentence itself is uttered. Hence : general division of tense is into present, past, and future,—called the *imperfect*, and *first future* tenses ; as, *I walk, I walked, I shall walk.* er three tenses are modifications of the two last mentioned.

Those tenses are called simple tenses, which are formed of the principal without an auxiliary verb; as, "I love, I loved." The compound tenses are such as cannot be formed without an auxiliary verb; as, "I *have* loved; I *had* loved; I *shall* or *will* love; I *may* love; I *may be* loved; I *may have been* loved;" &c. These compounds are, however, to be considered as only different forms of the same verb.

THE PRESENT TENSE, denotes an action or event in present time, or as passing at the time, in which it is mentioned; as, "I *rule*; I *am* ruled; I *think* I *fear*."

The present tense likewise expresses a character, quality, &c. at present existing; as, "He *is* an able man;" "She *is* an amiable woman." It is also used in speaking of actions continued, with occasional intermissions, to the present time; as, "He frequently *rides*;" "He *walks* out every morning;" "He *goes* into the country every summer." We sometimes apply this tense even to persons long since dead; as, "Seneca *reasons* and *moralizes* well;" "Jo *speaks* feelingly of his afflictions."

The present tense, preceded by the words, *when*, *before*, *after*, *as soon as*, &c. is sometimes used to point out the relative time of a future action; as, "When he *arrives* he will hear the news;" "He will hear the news *before* he *arrives*, or *as soon as* he *arrives*, or, at farthest, *soon after* he *arrives*;" "The more she *improves*, the more amiable she will be."

In animated historical narrations, this tense is sometimes substituted for the imperfect tense; as, "He *enters* the territory of the peaceable inhabitants he *fights* and *conquers*, *takes* an immense booty, which he *divides* amongst his soldiers, and *returns* home to enjoy an empty triumph."

THE IMPERFECT TENSE denotes an action or event in past time, either finished, or as remaining unfinished at a certain time past; as, "I *loved* her for her modesty and virtue;" "They *were travelling* just when he *met* them."

The first example, in the preceding paragraph, shows, that the action was past and finished, though the precise time of it was not defined. In this point of view the tense may be said to be *imperfect*;—the time of the action is not exactly and perfectly ascertained. In the second instance, the action is represented as past, but not finished; and it may, therefore, with propriety be denominated *imperfect*.

It is proper to observe, on this occasion, that in such sentences as the following; "He *wrote* to him yesterday;" "They *behaved* themselves at that period very properly;" the precise time of the action is not denoted by the tense of the verb itself; but by the addition of the words, *yesterday*, and *at that period* (See the Lecture on Adverbs.)

THE PERFECT TENSE not only refers to what is past, but also conveys an allusion to the present time; as, "I *have finished* my letter;" "I *have seen* the person, that was recommended to me."

In the former example, it is signified that the finishing of the letter, though past, was at a period immediately, or very nearly, preceding the present time. In the latter instance, it is uncertain whether the person mentioned was seen at the speaker's long or short time before. The meaning is, "I *have seen* him some time in the course of a period which includes or comes to, the present time. In both instances, "the finishing of the letter," and "the seeing of the person" comprehend periods, each of which extends to the time present. We have no idea of any certain portion of time intervening between the time of action at the time of speaking of it. The sentence, "I *have written* a letter," implies that, "I *have*, or possess the finished action of writing a letter." Under the views of the subject, it appears that the term, *perfect*, may be properly applied

to this time ; as the action is not only finished, but the period of its completion is specially referred to, and ascertained.

When the particular time of any occurrence is specified, as prior to the present time, this tense is not used ; for it would be improper to say, " *I have seen* him yesterday ;" or, " *I have finished* my work last week." In these cases the imperfect is necessary ; as, " *I saw* him yesterday ;" " *I finished* my work last week." But when we speak indefinitely of any thing past, as happening or not happening in the day, year, or age, in which we mention it, the perfect must be employed ; as, " *I have been* there this morning ;" " *I have travelled* much this year ;" " *We have escaped* many dangers through life." In referring, however, to such a division of the day as is past before the time of our speaking, we use the imperfect ; as, " *They came* home early this morning ;" " *He was* with them at three o'clock this afternoon."

The perfect tense, and the imperfect tense, both denote a thing that is past ; but the former denotes it in such a manner, that there is still actually remaining some part of the time to slide away, wherein we declare the thing has been done ; whereas the imperfect denotes the thing or action past, in such a manner, that nothing remains of that time in which it was done. If we speak of the present century, we say, " Philosophers *have made* great discoveries in the present century ;" but if we speak of the last century, we say, " Philosophers *made* great discoveries in the last century," " *He has been* much afflicted this year ;" " *I have* this week *read* the king's proclamation ;" " *I have heard* great news this morning ;" in these sentences, " *He has been*," " *I have read*," and " *heard*," denotes things that are past ; but they occurred in this year, in this week, and to day ; and still there remains a part of this year, week, and day, whereof I speak.

In general, the perfect tense may be applied wherever the action is connected with the present time, by the actual existence, either of the author, or of the work, though it may have been performed many centuries ago ; but if neither the author nor the work now remains, it cannot be used. We may say, " Cicero *has written* orations ;" but we cannot say, " Cicero *has writen* poems ;" because the orations are in being, but the poems are lost. Speaking of priests in general, we may say, " They *have* in all ages *claimed* great powers ;" because the general order of the priesthood still exists ; but if we speak of the Druids, or any particular order of priests, which does not now exist, we cannot use this tense. We cannot say, " The Druid priests *have claimed* great powers ;" but must say, " The Druid priests *claimed* great powers ;" because that order is now totally extinct.

The perfect tense, preceded by the words, *when*, *after*, *as soon as*, &c. is often used to denote the relative time of a future action ; as " *When* I have finished my letter, I will attend to his request ;" " I will attend to the business, *as soon as* I have finished my letter."

THE PLUPERFECT TENSE denotes an event not only as past, but also as past prior to some other point of time specified in the sentence ; as, " *I had finished* my letter before he arrived."

The term, used to designate this tense, may, in some degree, at least, be justified by observing, that the time of the action or event, is *more than*, or *beyond*, the time of some other action or event, to which it refers, and which is in the perfect or imperfect tense. Thus, in the sentences, " *I have seen* him, but *I had written* to him before ;" " Though he *had not then* agreed to the proposal, he *has* at length *consented* to it ;" " *I saw* him after *I had written* to him ;" " he *decided* indeed very culpably, but he *had been* vehemently urged to it ;" the pluperfect extends not only beyond, and precedent to, the time signified in the perfect tense, but also that denoted by the imperfect.

THE FIRST FUTURE TENSE represents the action as yet to come, either

with or without respect to the precise time ; as, "The sun will rise to-morrow" "I shall see them again."

Each of the auxiliaries, *shall* and *will*, is employed to signify the resolution of the speaker, or simple futurity, according to certain habits of collocation certain nominatives. *Will*, in the first person, and *shall*, in the second and third, signify resolution. Simple futurity is expressed by *shall* in the first person, and *will* in the two others.

The simple future is as follows ;

I <i>shall</i> ,	thou <i>will</i> ,	he <i>will</i> ,
We <i>shall</i> ,	ye <i>will</i> ,	they <i>will</i> ,

The future of determination is,

I <i>will</i> ,	thou <i>shall</i> ,	he <i>shall</i> ,
We <i>will</i> ,	ye <i>shall</i> ,	they <i>shall</i> ,

The perplexities, occurring in the use of these auxiliaries, may be avoided if we always recollect, that it is not the resolution of the *person spoken of*, but of the *speaker* they are at any time employed particularly to express, but of the *speaker* *Will*, therefore, is employed for simple futurity in the second and third persons and is even appropriate where an event is mentioned, that is opposite to inclination of the person, who is the subject of the assertion. We say, "if you become obnoxious to the criminal law, you *will* be punished." The *will*, does not here imply intention or even consent ; yet it is appropriate. The cause *shall* would imply constraint or authority on the part of the speaker. It should also be remembered, that, in mentioning any thing future with respect to ourselves, although it should be the effect of our intention, this does not render it proper to use the auxiliary, *will* ; because *will*, in the first person, always presses emphatic resolution, implying the apprehension of difficulty or resistance from others. If another has said, "you shall not," a man replies, *will* ;" but in expressing the common acts, which are to fill upon future time we say simply, "I shall go home ;" "I shall tell you the whole matter, when we next meet." (Also, see *shall* and *will* under the head, *Auxiliary Verbs*.)

THE SECOND FUTURE intimates, that the action will be fully accomplished at or before the time of another future action or event ; as, "I shall have done at one o'clock ;" "The two houses will have finished their business, when king comes to prorogue them."

It is to be observed, that in the various forms of the subjunctive mood, event being spoken of under a condition or supposition, or in the form of a wish and therefore as doubtful and contingent, the verb itself in the present and imperfect tenses, often carry with them somewhat of a future sense ; as, "I come to-morrow, I may speak to him ;" "If he should, or would come to-morrow, I might, would, could, or should speak to him." Observe also, that the auxiliaries, *should* and *would*, in the imperfect tenses, are used to express present and future as well as the past ; as, "It is my desire, that he should come now, or to-morrow ;" as well as, "It was my desire, that he should or would come yesterday." So that in this mood the precise time of the verb is very much to be determined by the nature and drift of the sentence.

In treating of the tenses, there are two things, to which attention ought principally to be turned,—the *relation*, which the several tenses have to one another, in respect of *time* ; and the *notice*, which they give, of an action's being *completed*, or *not completed*.

The present, past, and future tenses, may be used either *definitely* or *indefinitely*, both with respect to *time* and *action*. When they denote customs, or habits, and not individual acts, they are applied indefinitely ; as, "Virtue *promotes* happiness ;" "The old Romans *governed* by benefits more than fear ;"

shall hereafter *employ* my time more usefully." In these examples, the words, *emploies*, *governed* and *shall employ*, are used indefinitely; both in regard to action and time; for they are not confined to individual actions, nor to any precise points of present, past, or future time. When they are applied to signify particular actions, and to ascertain the precise points of time to which they are confined, they are used definitely; as in the following instances. "My brother *is writing*;" "He *built* the house last summer, but did not *inhabit* it till yesterday." "He *will write* another letter to-morrow."

The different tenses also represent an action as *complete* or *perfect*, or as *incomplete* or *imperfect*. In the phrases, 'I am writing, I was writing, I shall be writing,' imperfect, unfinished actions are signified. But the following examples, "I wrote, I have written, I had written, I shall have written," all denote complete, perfect action.

The distinction of the tenses into *definite* and *indefinite* may be more intelligible to the student by the following explanation and arrangement.

PRESENT TENSE.

Indefinite. This form of the present tense denotes action, or being, in present time, without limiting it with exactness to a given point. It expresses also acts, which exist generally, at all times, general truths, attributes, which are permanent, habits, customary actions, and the like without the reference to specific time; as, "Hope *springs* eternal in the human breast; Virtue *promotes* happiness; Man *is* imperfect and dependent; The wicked *flee* when no man pursueth; Plants *rise* from the earth; Sometimes he *works*, but he often *lays*; Birds *fly*; Fishes *swim*."

Definite. This form expresses the present time with precision; and it usually denotes action or being, which corresponds in time with another action; as, "He *is meditating*; I *am writing*, while you *are waiting*."

IMPERFECT TENSE.

Indefinite. This form of the imperfect tense represents action past and finished, and often with the precise time undefined;—as, "Alexander *conquered* the Persians; Scipio *was* as virtuous as brave."

Definite. This form expresses an action as taking place and unfinished, in some specified period of past time; as, "I *was standing* at the door, when the recession passed."

PERFECT TENSE.

Indefinite. This form of the perfect tense represents an action completely past, and often at no great distance, but not specified; as, "I *have accomplished* my design; I *have read* the history of England."

Definite. This form represents an action as just finished, as, "I *have been reading* a history of the revolution; I *have been studying* hard to day."

PLUPERFECT TENSE.

Indefinite. This form of the pluperfect tense expresses an action, which was past at or before some other past time specified; as, "He *had received* the news before the messenger arrived."

Definite. This form denotes an action to be just past, at or before another past time specified; as, "I *had been writing* an hour, when the messenger arrived."

FIRST FUTURE TENSE.

Indefinite. This form of the first future tense simply gives notice of an event to happen hereafter; as, "Charles *will go* to London; I think we *shall have* a fine season."

Definite. This form expresses an action, which is to take place, and be unfinished.

ished at a specified future time ; as, "He *will be preparing* for a visit, at the time you arrive."

SECOND FUTURE TENSE.

Indefinite. This form of the second future denotes an action which will be past at a future time specified ;—as, "They *will have accomplished* their purpose at the time they proposed."

Definite. This form represents an action, which will be just past at a future specified time ;—"The scholars *will have been studying* an hour, when the tutor comes to examine them."

The student will observe, that, in this scheme, all the definite tenses are formed by the participle of the present tense and the verb, *to be*.

There are other modes of expressing future time ;—as, "I am going to write ; I am about to write." These have been called the *inceptive* future, as they denote the commencement of an action, or an intention to commence an action without delay.

The verb, *to be*, followed by a verb in the infinitive mood forms another method of indicating future time ; as, "Ferdinand *is to command* the army." "On the subject of style, I *am afterwards to speak*." "Æneas went in search of an empire, which *was*, one day, *to govern* the world." The latter expression has been called a future past ; that is, *past* as to the narrator, but *future* as to the event, at the time specified.

SECTION 4.—Of Number and Person.

The Number and Person of a verb are its inflections or various endings to denote its agreement with nominatives of different numbers or persons ; as,

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>First person</i>	I love,	We love,
<i>Second person,</i>	Thou lovest,	Ye love,
<i>Third person,</i>	He loves ;	They love.

Here the verb *love* of the *first* person is varied in the *second* person, to *lovest* to express its agreement with *thou* ; and in the third person to *loves*, to express its agreement with *he* ; and also to express different numbers of the same person ; as, thou *lovest*, ye *love* ; he *loves*, they *love*. But in the plural number, there is no variation of ending to express the different persons ; and the verb, in the three persons plural, is the same as it is in the first person singular. Yet this scanty provision of terminations is sufficient for all the purposes of discourse, and no ambiguity arises from it ; the verb being always attended, either with the noun expressing the subject acting or acted upon, or with the pronoun representing it. For this reason, the plural termination in *en*, as *they loven*, *they weren*, &c. formerly in use, was laid aside as unnecessary, and has long been obsolete.

In the ancient languages, where these variations of the verb on account of number and person are regular, they are supposed to consist of the personal pronouns, originally annexed to the verb in a separate form, until by custom they coalesced with it, and came to be considered as a part of it ; as if we should say in English, 'love I, love thou, love he ; love we, love ye, love they.' Accordingly, in the Latin for instance, we find that the personal pronouns need not be expressed, but are implied in the verb ; thus, *amo* implies *ego amo*, I love ; *amas* implies *tu amas*, thou lovest ; *amat* implies *ille amat*, he loves ;—but the inflections of the English verb possess a character somewhat different from those used in the Latin language. They do not supply the place of nominatives, but are used along with them. We never say 'love' for 'I love,' 'lovest' for 'thou lovest,' nor 'loves' for 'he loves.' The terminations in English

ore, are not complete pronouns as in Latin; they are only accompanying denoting that a particular sort of word is the nominative to the verb.— might be represented as redundancies, but they are not destitute of meaning and utility. They enable us to expatiate on a variety of circumstances in connexion with the object exhibited in the nominative case, before we introduce the verb; and then the form of the verb shows its connexion with the person named in the nominative. But as the terminations in English are not so easy as in Latin, they are fewer and less varied. For this, among other reasons, our language admits of less inversion in the order of the words.

SECTION 5.—Of Conjugation.

The Conjugation of an active verb is styled the ACTIVE VOICE; and that of a passive verb, the PASSIVE VOICE.

In the present and imperfect tenses, we use a form of the verb different from that given in the example, page 21, when we mean to express energy and position;—as, ‘I *do* love; thou *dost* love; he *does* love; I *did* love; thou *lovest*; he *did* love.”

The active verb may also be conjugated differently, by adding its present or participle to the auxiliary verb, *to be*, through all its moods and tenses; as of ‘I teach, thou teachest, he teaches,’ &c. we may say, ‘I am teaching, art teaching, he is teaching,’ &c.; and instead of ‘I taught,’ &c. ‘I was teaching,’ &c. and so on, through all the variations of the auxiliary. This mode of conjugation has, on particular occasions, a peculiar propriety; and contributes to the harmony and precision of the language. These forms of expression are adapted to particular acts, not to general habits, or affections of the mind.— are very frequently applied to active intransitive and neuter verbs; as, ‘I am musing; he is sleeping.’

Coote justly observes, that the termination of the third person singular is now very rarely used, *es*, or *s*, being substituted for it. This practice is approved by Addison, as ‘multiplying a letter, which was before too frequent in the English tongue; and adding to that hissing in our language, which is taken much notice of by foreigners.’ Notwithstanding this reproach, it has been observed, that no passage, in English prose or verse, exhibits, within an equal space, such a repetition of the sibilant letter, as the following quotation from Horace;—

Res Italas armis tuteris, moribus ornes,
Legibus emendes.

When, in conjugating the passive voice, an auxiliary is joined to the participle of the principal verb, the auxiliary goes through all the variations of person and number, and the participle itself continues invariably the same. When there are two or more auxiliaries joined to the participle, the first of them only is declined according to number and person. The auxiliary, *must*, admits of no declension.

SECTION 6.—Of Auxiliary Verbs.

The learner will perceive from the conjugation of auxiliary verbs, as exhibited on page 23, that in their simple state, and unassisted by others, they are of a limited extent; and that they are chiefly useful, in the aid which they afford in conjugating the principal verbs.

Verbs *have*, *be*, *will*, and *do*, when they are unconnected with a principal verb expressed or understood, are not auxiliaries, but principal verbs; as, “We are enough; I am grateful; He *wills* it to be so; They *do* as they please.” In every view, they also have their auxiliaries; as, “I *shall have* enough; I *will be* grateful;” &c.

The peculiar force of the several auxiliaries will appear from the following examples of them.

Do and *did* mark the action itself, or the time of it, with greater energy and positiveness; as, "I *do* speak truth; I *did* respect him; Here am I, for thou *didst* call me." They are of great use in negative sentences; as, "I *do not* fear; I *did not* write." They are almost universally employed in asking questions; as, "Does he learn? *Did* he not write?" They sometimes also supply the place of another verb, and make the repetition of it, in the same or a subsequent sentence, unnecessary; as, "You attend not to your studies as he *does*;" (i. e. as he attends, &c.) "I shall come if I can; but if I *do not*, please to excuse me;" (i. e. if I come not.)

May and *might* express the possibility or liberty of doing a thing; *can* and *could*, the power; as, "It may rain; I may write or read; He might have improved more than he has; He can write much better than he could last year."

Must is sometimes called in for a helper, and denotes necessity; as, "We must speak the truth, whenever we do speak, and we must not prevaricate."

Will, in the first person singular and plural, intimates resolution and promising; in the second and third person, only foretels; as, "I will reward the good, and will punish the wicked; We will remember benefits, and be grateful; Thou wilt, or he will, repent of that folly; You or they will have a pleasant walk."

Shall, on the contrary, in the first person, simply foretels, in the second and third persons, promises, commands, or threatens; as, "I shall go abroad; We shall dine at home; Thou shalt, or you shall inherit the land; Ye shall do justice, and love mercy; They shall account for their misconduct." The following passage is not translated according to the distinct and proper meaning of the words, *shall* and *will*; "Surely goodness and mercy shall follow me all the days of my life; and I will dwell in the house of the Lord for ever;" it ought to be, "*Will* follow me," and "I *shall* dwell."—The foreigner who, as it is said, fell into the Thames, and cried out; "I *will* be drowned, no body *shall* help me;" made a sad misapplication of these auxiliaries.

These observations, respecting the import of the verbs, *will* and *shall*, must be understood of explicative sentences; for, when the sentence is interrogative, just the reverse, for the most part, takes place; thus, "I *shall* go; you *will* go;" express event only; but, "*will* you go?" imports intention; and, "*shall* I go?" refers to the will of another. But, "He *shall* go," and "*shall* he go?" both imply will; expressing or referring to a command.

When the verb is put in the subjunctive mood, the meaning of these auxiliaries likewise undergoes some alteration; as the learners will readily perceive by a few examples; "He *shall* proceed; If he *shall* proceed;" "You *shall* consent," "If you *shall* consent." These auxiliaries are sometimes interchanged, in the indicative and subjunctive moods, to convey the same meaning of the auxiliary; as, "He *will* not return, If he *shall* not return; He *shall* not return; If he *will* not return."

Would primarily denotes inclination of will; and *should*, obligation; but they both vary their import, and are often used to express simple event.

Were is frequently used for *would be*, and *had* for *would have*; as, "It *were* injustice to deny the execution of the law to any individual;" that is, "It *would be* injustice." "Many acts, which had been blamable in a peaceable government were employed to detect conspiracies;" that is, "which *would have been* blamable."

Sometimes that form of the auxiliary verbs, *shall*, *will*, &c. which is generally conditional, is elegantly used to express a very slight assertion, with a modest diffidence. Thus we say, "I *should* think it would be proper to give up the point;" that is, "I am rather inclined to think."

Some writers still use *shall* and *will*, *should* and *would*, as they were formerly used; that is, in a sense quite contrary to that, in which they are generally used at present. The following expressions are instances of this incorrect

ice ; " We *would* have been wanting to ourselves, if we had complied with demand ; We *should*." " We *will*, therefore, briefly unfold our reasons ; *shall*" "He imagined, that by playing one party against another, he *would* obtain the victory over both ; He *should* easily," &c. several familiar forms of expression, the word, *shall*, still retains its original signification, and does not mean, to promise, threaten or engage, in the third person, but the mere futurity of an event ; as, " This is as extraordinary a thing, as one *shall* ever hear of."

SECTION 7.—Of Irregular Verbs.

Irregular Verbs are of various sorts.

Such as have the present and imperfect tenses, and perfect participle, the same ; as,

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Imperfect.</i>	<i>Perfect Part.</i>
Cost,	cost,	cost.
Put,	put,	put.

Such as have the imperfect tense, and perfect participle, the same ; as,

Abide,	abode,	abode.
Sell,	sold,	sold.

Such as have the imperfect tense, and perfect participle, different ; as,

Arise,	arose,	arisen.
Blow,	blew,	blown.

ny verbs become irregular by contraction ; as, " feed, fed ; leave, left ;" by the termination, *en* ; as, " fall, fell, fallen ;" others by the termination, as, " buy, bought ; teach, taught," &c.

The following list of the irregular verbs will, it is presumed, be found both extensive and accurate.

<i>ent.</i>	<i>Imperfect.</i>	<i>Perf. or Pass. Participle.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Imperfect.</i>	<i>Perf. or Pass. Participle.</i>
	abode,	abode.	Cling,	clung,	clung.
	was,	been.	Clothe,	clothed,	clad &c.
	arose,	arisen.	Come,	came,	come.
,	awoke, &c.	awaked.	Cost,	cost,	cost.
o bring	bare,	born.	Crow,	crew, &c.	crowed.
,	hore,	borne.	Creep,	crept,	crept.
o carry,	beat,	beaten, beat.	Cut,	cut,	cut.
	began,	begun.	Dare, to venture,	durst,	dared.
	bent,	bent.	Dare, &c. to challenge.		
e,	hereft, &c.	hereft, &c.	Deal,	dealt, &c.	dealt, &c.
1,	besought,	besought.	Dig,	dug, &c.	dug, &c.
	bid, bade,	bidden, bid.	Do,	did,	done.
	bound,	bound.	Draw,	drew,	drawn.
	bit,	bitten, bit.	Drive,	drove,	driven.
	bled,	bled.	Drink,	drank,	drank.
	blew,	blown.	Dwell,	dwelt, &c.	dwelt.
	broke,	broken.	Eat,	eat, or ate,	eaten.
	bred,	bred.	Fall,	fell,	fallen.
	brought,	brought.	Feed,	fed,	fed.
	built,	built.	Feel,	felt,	felt.
	burst,	burst.	Fight,	fought,	fought.
	bought,	bought.	Find,	found,	found.
	cast,	cast.	Flee,	fled,	fled.
	caught, &c.	caught, &c.	Fling,	flung,	flung.
	chid,	chidden, chid.	Fly,	flew,	flown.
	chose,	chosen.	Forget,	forgot,	forgotten, forgot
to stick or adhere,	REGULAR.		Forsake,	forsook,	forsaken.
to split, clove, or cleft,		cleft, cloven.			

Present.	Imperfect.	Perf. or Pass. Participle.	Present.	Imperfect.	Perf. or P. Participle.
Freeze,	froze,	frozen.	Shrink,	shrank,	shrunk.
Get,	got,	got.*	Shred,	shred,	shred.
Gild,	gilt, n.	gilt, n.	Shut,	shut,	shut.
Gird,	girt, n.	girt, n.	Sing,	sang, sang,	sung.
Give,	gave,	given.	Sink,	sank, sank,	sunk.
Go,	went,	gone.	Sit,	sat,	sat.
Grave,	graved,	graven, n.	Slay,	slew,	slain.
Grind,	ground,	ground.	Sleep,	slept,	aslept.
Grow,	grew,	grown.	Slide,	slid,	slidden.
Have,	had,	had.	Slung,	slung,	slung.
Hang,	hung, n.	hung, n.	Slink,	slunk,	slunk.
Hear,	heard,	heard.	Slit,	slit, n.	slit or slitted
Hew,	hewed,	hewn, n.	Smite,	smote,	smitten.
Hide,	hid,	hidden, hid.	Sow,	sowed,	sown, n.
Hit,	hit,	hit.	Speak,	spoke,	spoken.
Hold,	held,	held.	Speed,	sped,	sped.
Hurt,	hurt,	hurt.	Spend,	spent,	spent.
Keep,	kept,	kept.	Spill,	spilt, n.	spilt, n.
Knit,	knit, n.	knit, n.	Spin,	spun,	spun.
Know,	knew,	known,	Spit,	spit, spat,	spit, spitten.
Lade,	laden,	laden.	Split,	split,	split.
Lay,	laid,	laid.	Spread,	spreed,	spreed,
Lead,	led,	led.	Spring,	sprang, sprang,	sprang.
Leave,	left,	left.	Stand,	stood,	stood.
Lend,	lent,	lent.	Steal,	stole,	stolen.
Let,	let,	let.	Stick,	stuck,	stuck.
Lie, to lie down,	lay,	lain.	Sting,	stung,	stung.
Load,	loaded,	laden, n.	Stink,	stunk,	stunk.
Lose,	lost,	lost.	Stride,	strode or strid,	stridden.
Make,	made,	made.	Strike,	struck,	struck, strick
Meet,	met,	met.	String,	strung,	strung.
Mow,	mowed,	mown, n.	Strive,	strove,	striven.
Pay,	paid,	paid.	Strow or strew,	strowed or strewed,	strown, strewn
Put,	put,	put.	Swear,	swore,	sworn.
Read,	read,	read.	Sweat,	swet, n.	swet, n.
Reud,	rent,	rent.	Swell,	swelled,	swollen, n.
Rid,	rid,	rid.	Swim,	swum, swam,	swum.
Ride,	rode,	rode, ridden.†	Swing,	swung,	swung.
Ring,	rung, rang,	rung.	Take,	took,	taken.
Rise,	rose,	risen.	Teach,	taught,	taught.
Rive,	rived,	riven.	Tear,	tore,	torn.
Run,	ran,	run.	Tell,	told,	told.
Saw,	sawed,	sawn, n.	Think,	thought,	thought.
Say,	said,	said.	Thrive,	throve, n.	thriven.
See,	saw,	seen.	Throw,	threw,	thrown.
Seek,	sought,	sought.	Thrust,	thrust,	thrust.
Sell,	sold,	sold.	Tread,	trod,	trodden.
Send,	sent,	sent.	Wax,	waxed,	waxen, n.
Set,	set,	set.	Wear,	wore,	worn.
Shake,	shook,	shaken.	Weave,	wove,	woven.
Shape,	shaped,	shaped, shapen.	Weep,	wept,	wept.
Shave,	shaved,	shaven, n.	Win,	won,	won.
Shear,	sheared,	shorn.	Wind,	wound,	wound.
Shed,	shed,	shed.	Work,	wrought,	wrought, work
Shine,	shone, n.	shone, n.	Wring,	wrung,	wrung.
Show,	showed,	shown.	Write,	wrote,	written.
Shoe,	shod,	shod.			
Shoot,	shot,	shot.			

In the preceding list, some of the verbs will be found to be conjugated regularly, as well as irregularly ; and those which admit of the regular form at

* *Gotten* is nearly obsolete. Its compound, *forgotten*, is still in good use.

† *Ridden* is nearly obsolete.

‡ *Spitten* is nearly obsolete.

marked with an *n*. There is a preference to be given to some of these, which custom and judgment must determine. Those preterits and participles, which are first mentioned in the list, seem to be the most eligible. The Compiler has not inserted such verbs as are irregular only in familiar writing or discourse, and which are improperly terminated by *t*, instead of *ed*; as, learnt, spelt, spilt, &c. These should be avoided in every sort of composition. It is, however, proper to observe, that some contractions of *ed* into *t*, are unexceptionable; and others, the only established forms of expression; as crept, guilt, &c. and lost, left, slept, &c. These allowable and necessary contractions must therefore be carefully distinguished by the learner, from those that are exceptionable. The words which are obsolete have also been omitted, that the learner might not be induced to mistake them for words in present use. Such are, wreathen, drunken, holpen, molten, gotten, holden, bounden, &c.; and swang, wrang, slank, strawed, gat, brake, tare, ware, &c.

SECTION 8.—Of Defective Verbs.

That the verbs, *must* and *ought*, have both a present and a past signification appears from the following circumstances;— I must now own, that I was to blame; ‘ He must, at that time, have been mistaken;’ ‘ We ought to do our duty, and leave the consequences;’ ‘ They spoke things, which they ought not then to have spoken.’

If it be further objected, that the expression, ‘ He must have been deceived,’ is as incoherent and absurd as the phrase, ‘ He intended to have written,’ we presume, that the objection is wholly destitute of foundation. As the word, *must*, in the sentence in question, is used as an auxiliary verb, there appears to be no impropriety in connecting it with the subsequent form of the verb. It is as justifiable and regular as the helping verbs and their connexions are in the following sentences; ‘ He *may* have been deceived;’ ‘ He *might* have done better;’ ‘ He *could* not have done worse.’ With regard to the phrase, ‘ He ought, when the officer appeared, to have surrendered himself;’ we observe, that when we use the verb, *ought*, this is the only possible way to distinguish the past from the present.

In most languages there are some verbs, which are defective with respect to persons. These are denominated *impersonal* verbs. They are used only in the third person, because they refer to a subject peculiarly appropriated to that person; as, “ It rains, it snows, it hails, it lightens, it thunders.” But as the word, *impersonal*, implies a total absence of persons, it is improperly applied to those verbs which have a person; and hence it is manifest, that there is no such thing in English, nor indeed, in any language, as a sort of verbs really impersonal.

The plea, however, that is urged to prove the existence of impersonal verbs, is, in substance, as follows;—and the reader will perceive, that it is not wholly destitute of plausibility. “ There are certain verbs, which do not admit, for their subject, any thing, that has life, or any thing, that is strictly defluable; such as, “ it snows, it hails, it freezes, it rains, it lightens, it thunders.” In this point of view, and with this explanation, it is supposed, by some grammarians, that our language contains a few impersonal verbs; that is, verbs, which declare the existence of some action or state, but which do not refer it to any animate being, or any determinate particular subject.

SECTION 9.—Of Participles.

The Participle derives its name from its *participating*, not only of the properties of a verb, but also those of an adjective; as, “ *admired* and *applauded*, he became vain,” “ I am desirous of *knowing* him.”

The participle participates of the properties of a verb, because like a verb, it expresses *action*, and frequently governs the objective case; as, “ *Knowing* him,” in the last example;—and it participates of the properties of an adject-

tive, because, like an adjective, it is frequently added to a noun to express some quality or circumstance of the object signified by the noun; as, "The *rising* sun;" "An *admired* performance."

In the phrase, "An admired performance," the word *admired*, has the form of the imperfect tense, and of the participle passive of the verb, to *admire*; and, at the same time, it denotes a quality of the noun, *performance*, which shows it to be an adjective.

The same word, and in apparently the same construction, is, therefore, sometimes a participle and sometimes an adjective; thus, in the sentence, "Thomas *is mistaken* by his opponents," *mistaken* is a participle, which, with the verb, *is*, forms a passive verb, and means, that "Thomas is misunderstood;"—but in the sentence, "Thomas *is mistaken*," meaning that "Thomas is wrong," *mistaken* is an adjective.

By some grammarians, the participle has been classed as a separate part of speech; while by others, and among them Lindley Murray, it has been included in the verb. In favour of the latter arrangement, it has been said, that, as the participle in the definite mode of conjugation, performs the office of a verb through all the moods and tenses; and as it implies the idea of time, and governs the objective case of nouns and pronouns, in the same manner as verbs do; it is manifestly a species, or form of the verb, and cannot properly be considered as a distinct part of speech. But, upon examination, this argument will not, probably, be found of much force; since, if the opinion of Horne Tooke be correct, the adjective may, by the same mode of reasoning, be shown to be "a species or form" of the noun, and therefore not entitled to be considered as a distinct part of speech.

If, however, the nature of the participle is distinctly explained, and correctly understood, it cannot be of much importance, whether we class it as a separate part of speech, or include it with the verb.

There are three participles, the Present or Active, the Perfect or Passive, and the Compound Perfect; as, "*loving, loved, having loved.*"

Agreeably to the general practice of grammarians, we have represented the present participle, as active; and the past as passive; but they are not uniformly so; the present is sometimes passive, and the past is frequently active. Thus, "The youth *was consuming* by a slow malady;" "The Indian *was burning* by the cruelty of his enemies;" appear to be instances of the present participle being used passively. "He *has instructed* me;" "I *have gratefully repaid* his kindness;" are examples of the past participle being applied in an active sense. We may also observe, that the present participle is sometimes associated with the past and future tenses of the verb; and the past participle connected with the present and future tenses. The most unexceptionable distinction, which grammarians make between the participles, is, that the one points to the continuation of the action, passion, or state, denoted by the verb; and the other, to the completion of it. Thus the present participle signifies *imperfect* action, or action begun and not ended; as, "I *am writing* a letter." The past participle signifies action *perfected*, or finished; as, "I *have written* a letter;" "The letter *is written.*"

The participle is distinguished from the adjective, by the former's expressing the idea of time, and the latter's denoting only a quality. The phrases, "*loving* to give as well as to receive, *moving* in haste, *heated* with liquor," contain participles giving the idea of time; but the epithets contained in the expressions, "a *loving* child, a *moving* spectacle, a *heated* imagination," mark simply the qualities referred to, without any regard to time; and may properly be called participial adjectives.

*When this participle is joined to the verb to *have*, it is called *perfect*; when it is joined to the verb to *be*, or understood with it, it is denominated *passive*.

Participles sometimes perform the office of nouns, and are used as such ; as in the following instances ; “ The *beginning* ; a good *understanding* ; excellent *writing* ; the chancellor’s *being attached* to the king secured his crown ; the general’s *having failed* in this enterprise occasioned his disgrace ; John’s *having been writing* a long time wearied him.”

That the words in italics of the three last examples, perform the office of nouns, and may be considered as such, will be evident, if we reflect, that the first of them has the same meaning and construction as, “ The chancellor’s attachment to the king secured his crown ;” and that the other examples will bear a similar construction. The words, *being attached*, govern the word *chancellor’s* in the possessive case, in the one instance, as clearly as *attachment* governs it in that case, in the other ; and it is only nouns, or words and phrases, which operate as nouns, that govern the possessive case.

The following sentence is not precisely the same as the above, either in sense or construction, though, except the possessive case, the words are the same ; “ The chancellor, being attached to the king, secured his crown.” In the former, the words, *being attached*, form the nominative case to the verb, and are stated as the cause of the effect ; in the latter, they are not the nominative case, and make only a circumstance to *chancellor*, which is the proper nominative.—It may not be improper to add another form of this sentence, by which the learner may better understand the peculiar nature and form of each of these modes of expression ; “ The chancellor being attached to the king, his crown was secured.” This constitutes what is properly called, the Nominative Case Absolute.

The whole number of verbs in the English language, regular, and irregular, simple and compounded, taken together, is about 4300. The number of irregular verbs, the defective included, is about 177.†

LECTURE VII.—OF CONJUNCTIONS.

The principal use of conjunctions is to connect sentences. After speaking or writing one sentence, we frequently wish to add another, in close connexion with it. This we effect by means of the copulative conjunction ; as, “ I saw him and her,” that is, “ I saw him add her.” Here are two simple sentences ; and so, without using a conjunction, we should be obliged to write them ; as, “ I saw him, I saw her.” Sometimes the latter sentence is introduced by the conjunction as a condition, modifying the assertion contained in the former ; as, “ I will go, if he will accompany me,” that is, “ I will go, *granting, allowing, or on condition* he will accompany me.” In other cases, the latter sentence is added as a cause or motive of the former ; as, “ He is happy, *because* he is good ; I study, *that* I may improve ;” that is, “ *his being good* is the cause of *his being happy* ;” and “ *my improvement* is the motive of *my study*.” These conjunctions are called copulative, because they continue the sense ; but when we intend to express opposition of meaning, we employ the disjunctive conjunction ; as, “ I saw him, *but* I did not see her.” This forms the principal ground of distinction between conjunctions, as copulative and disjunctive. When two nouns or pronouns are connected by a copulative conjunction, they are to be considered as taken together, and what is asserted of one is also asserted of both ; as, “ I saw him and her,” that is, “ I saw him, and I saw her.” “ He and his brother reside in London,” that is, “ He resides in London, and his brother resides in London.” But when two nouns or pronouns are connected by a disjunctive conjunction, they are to be considered separately, and the assertion applies to one of them only ; as, “ I saw him or her,” that is, “ I saw one of the two ; He or his brother resides in London,” that is, “ either he or his brother *me* of the two, resides in London.”

† The whole number of words, in the English language, is about thirty-five thousand.

Conjunctions very often unite sentences, when they appear to unite only words ; as in the following instances ; " Duty *and* interest forbid vicious indulgences ; Wisdom *or* folly govern us." Each of these forms of expression contains two sentences, namely ; " Duty forbids vicious indulgences, and interest forbids vicious indulgences ; Wisdom governs us, or folly governs us."

Though the conjunction is commonly used to connect sentences together, yet on some occasions, it merely connects words, not sentences ; as, " The king *and* queen are an amiable pair ;" where the affirmation cannot refer to each ; it being absurd to say, that the king or the queen only is an amiable pair. So in the instances, " two *and* two are four ; the fifth *and* sixth volumes will complete the set of books." Prepositions also connect words ; but they do it to show the relation, which the connected words have to each other ; conjunctions, when they unite words only, are designed to show the relations, which those words, so united, have to other parts of the sentence.

As there are many conjunctions and connective phrases appropriated to the coupling sentences, that are never employed in joining the members of a sentence ; so there are several conjunctions appropriated to the latter use, which are never employed in the former ; and some that are equally adapted to both those purposes ; as, *again, further, besides, &c.* of the first kind ; *than, lest, unless, that, so that, &c.* of the second ; and *but, and, for, therefore, &c.* of the last.

The same word is occasionally used both as a conjunction, and as an adverb ; and sometimes as a preposition. " I rest *then* upon this argument ;" *then* is here a conjunction ; in the following phrase, it is an adverb ; " He arrived *then*, and not before." " I submitted ; *for* it was vain to resist ;" in this sentence, *for* is a conjunction ; in the next it is a preposition ; " He contended *for* victory only." In the first of following sentences, *since* is a conjunction ; in the second, it is a preposition ; and in the third, an adverb. " *Since* we must part, let us do it peaceably ; I have not seen him *since* that time ; Our friendship commenced long *since*."

Relative pronouns, as well as conjunctions, serve to connect sentences ; as, " Blessed is the man, *who* feareth the Lord, *and* keepeth his commandments."

A relative pronoun possesses the force both of a pronoun and a connective ;—nay, the union by relatives is rather closer, than that by mere conjunctions.—The latter may form two or more sentences into one ; but, by the former, several sentences may incorporate in one and the same clause of a sentence. Thus, " thou seest a man *and* he is called Peter," is a sentence consisting of two distinct clauses, united by the copulative *and* ; but, " the man, *whom* thou seest, is called Peter," is a sentence of one clause, and not less comprehensive than the other.

LECTURE VIII.—OF ADVERBS.

When adverbs are added to verbs, they generally denote the *manner, time, place, &c.* in which the action is performed ; as, " he writes *well*, she sings *sweetly*, we returned *to-day*, they will be *here, to-morrow*." When added to adjectives, and other adverbs, they serve to increase or diminish the quality expressed by the adjective or adverb ; as, " he is a *very* good man, she writes *extremely* well."

Adverbs seem originally to have been contrived to express compendiously in one word, what must otherwise have required two or more ; as, " He acted *wisely*," for he acted with wisdom ; " *prudently*," for, with prudence ; " He did *it here*," for, he did it in this place ; " *exceedingly*," for, to a great degree ; " *often and seldom*," for many, and for few times ; " *very*," for, in an eminent degree, &c.

There are many words in the English language, that are sometimes used as adjectives, and sometimes as adverbs ; as, " More men than women were there ;"

er, "I am more diligent than he." In the former sentence *more* is evidently an adjective, and in the latter, an adverb. There are others, that are sometimes used as nouns and sometimes as adverbs; as, "To-day's lesson is longer than yesterday's;" here *to-day* and *yesterday* are nouns, because they are words that make sense of themselves, and besides admit of the possessive case; but in the phrase, "He came home yesterday, and sets out again to-day," they are adverbs of time; because they answer to the question, *when*. The adverb, *much* is used as all three; as, "Where much is given, much is required; Much money has been expended; It is much better to go than to stay." In the first of these sentences, *much* is a noun; in the second, it is an adjective; and in the third, an adverb. In short, nothing but the sense can determine what they are.

It often happens, that several words are used together as an adverb; as, *long ago, by and by, in haste, in great haste, by no means, not at all, &c.* These may be called *adverbial phrases*.

Besides the adverbs already mentioned, there are many which are formed by a combination of several of the prepositions with the adverbs of place, *here, there, and where*; as, "Hereof, thereof, whereof; hereto, thereto, whereto; hereby, thereby, whereby; herewith, therewith, wherewith; herein, therein, whereid; therefore, (i. e. there-for,) wherefore, (i. e. where-for,) hereupon or hereon, thereupon or thereon, whereupon or whereon, &c." Except *therefore*, these are seldom used.

In some instances the preposition suffers no change, but becomes an adverb merely by its application; as when we say, "he rides *about*; he was *near* falling; but do not *after* lay the blame on me."

There are also some adverbs, which are composed of nouns, and the letter *a* med instead of *at, on, &c.* as, "Aside, athwart, afoot, ahead, asleep, aboard, ashore, abed, aground, afloat," &c

The words, *when* and *where*, and all others of the same nature, such as, *whence, whither, whenever, wherever, &c.* may be properly called *adverbial conjunctions*, because they participate of the nature both of adverbs and conjunctions; of conjunctions, as they conjoin sentences; of adverbs, as they denote the attributes either of *time* or of *place*.

It may be particularly observed with respect to the word *therefore*, that it is an adverb, when, without joining sentences, it only gives the sense of, *for that reason*. When it gives that sense, and also connects, it is a conjunction; as, "He is good, *therefore* he is happy." The same observation may be extended to the words, *consequently, accordingly, and the like*. When these are subjoined to *and*, or joined to *if, since, &c.* they are adverbs, the connexion being made without their help; when they appear single, and unsupported by any other connective, they may be called conjunctions.

The inquisitive scholar may naturally ask, what necessity there is for *adverbs of time*, when verbs are provided with *tenses*, to show that circumstance. The answer is, though tenses may be sufficient to denote the greater distinctions of time, yet, to denote them all by the tenses would be a perplexity without end. What a variety of forms must be given to verbs, to denote *yesterday, to-day, to-morrow, formerly, lately, just now, now, immediately, presently, soon, hereafter, &c.* It was this consideration that made the adverbs of time necessary, over and above the tenses.

LECTURE IX.—OF PREPOSITIONS.

A complete sentence cannot be formed without a nominative case and a verb. These therefore are the essential, leading words in a sentence; and the other words are introduced to modify the ideas expressed by these two. Thus, *cotton grows* is a complete sentence; it contains a nominative case and a verb, and makes a complete sense. But it is a general assertion, applicable to a variety of places; and it often happens, that, in using this sentence, we have occasion to lim-

its application to some particular place. For this purpose we add the name of that place; as, Cotton grows in *Virginia*. Here the added phrase, *in Virginia*, is called an adjunct of the verb, *grows*; and it modifies the signification of that verb by denoting the place *where* cotton is said to grow. We also frequently wish to augment, limit, or otherwise explain the idea signified by the nominative. To do this, we introduce an adjunct between it and the verb; as, Cotton *of a good quality* grows in Virginia. In this way, a number of explanatory phrases are often used as adjuncts both of the nominative and of the verb, to fit them to express exactly the ideas we mean to convey; as, Cotton of a good quality and in great abundance grows in Virginia with little cultivation. Now we have seen that adjectives may be added to the nominative, and adverbs to the verb *immediately*, and that the connexion, between the nominative or the verb and these other words, is denoted by *juxtaposition*, or being placed near each other; but when a noun is subjoined as an adjunct of the nominative or of the verb, the connexion must be expressed by a *preposition*, that is, a word put before that noun to denote that it is to be used in a subordinate character, as an adjunct of some other idea, and not as a principal idea itself. Thus, if we say, *Cotton good quality great abundance grows Virginia little cultivation*, we perceive, in this jumble of words, either a total want of connexion, or such a connexion as produces nonsense. We are at a loss to determine whether the nouns are in the nominative or objective case, and consequently whether they denote principal or subordinate ideas; but insert the prepositions *of*, *in*, *with*, as above, and the connexion is established; the relative signification of the words is designated, and we readily comprehend the meaning of the sentence. Prepositions sometimes shew a relation between different adjuncts; as, Cotton grows in several states *of* the Union. But in general they refer directly to the nominative or the verb.

Hence we perceive, that a preposition shows a relation between words by denoting that the word, which immediately follows it, is an adjunct of some other word in the sentence. With this definition the meaning of prepositions, if strictly examined, will be found to correspond. Thus in the example, "He went from London to York;" *from* expresses a relation between *London* and *went*, by denoting that London is the place, whence *he* *BEGAN to go*; and *to* shows a relation between *York* and *went*, by denoting that York is the place where *he* *TERMINATED his journey*. (See Lecture X. Sec. 3. Derivation and Meaning of Prepositions.)

Prepositions, in their original and literal acceptation, seem to have denoted relations of place; but they are now used *figuratively* to express other relations. For example, as they who are *above* have in several respects the advantage of such as are *below*, prepositions expressing high and low places are used for superiority and inferiority in general; as, "He is *above* disguise; we serve *under* a good master; he rules *over* a willing people; we should do nothing *beneath* our character."

Verbs are often compounded of a verb and a preposition, as, *to uphold*, *to invest*, *to overlook*; and this composition sometimes gives a new sense to the verb; as, *to understand*, *to withdraw*, *to forgive*. But in English, the preposition is more frequently placed after the verb, and separately from it, like an adverb, in which situation it is not less apt to affect the sense of it, and to give it a new meaning; and may still be considered as belonging to the verb, and as a part of it. As, *to cast*, is to throw; but *to cast up*, or to compute, *an account*, is quite a different thing; thus, *to fall on*, *to bear out*, *to give over*, &c. So that the meaning of the verb, and the propriety of the phrase, depend on the preposition subjoined. As the distinct component parts of these words are, however, no guide to the sense of the whole, this circumstance contributes greatly towards making our language peculiarly difficult to foreigners.

In the composition of many words, there are certain syllables employed,

which Grammarians have called inseparable prepositions; as, *de, con, mis, &c.* in *bedeck, conjoin, mistake*; but as they are not words of any kind, they cannot properly be called a species of preposition.

The importance of the prepositions will be further perceived by the explanation of a few of them.

Of denotes possession or belonging, an effect or consequence, and other relations connected with these; as, "The house *of* my friend;" that is, "the house belonging to my friend; He died *of* a fever;" that is, "in consequence of a fever."

From denotes *beginning, origin*; to signifies *end, termination*; as, "He rode *from* Salisbury to Winchester."

For indicates the cause or motive of any action or circumstance, &c. as, "He loves her *for* (that is, on account of) her amiable qualities."

By is generally used with reference to the cause, agent, means, &c. as, "He was killed *by* a fall;" that is, "a fall was the cause of his being killed;" "This house was built *by* him;" that is, "he was the builder of it."

With denotes the act of accompanying, uniting, &c.; as, "We will go *with* you; They are on good terms *with* each other."—*With* also alludes to the instrument or means; as, "He was cut *with* a knife."

In relates to time, place, the state or manner of being or acting, &c.; as, "He was born *in* (that is, during) the year 1720; He dwells *in* the city; She lives *in* affluence."

Into is used after verbs that imply motion of any kind; as, "He retired *into* the country; Copper is converted *into* brass."

Within relates to something comprehended in any place or time; as, "They are *within* the house; He began and finished his work *within* the limited time."

The signification of *without* is opposite to that of *within*; as, "She stands *without* the gate." But it is more frequently opposed to *with*; as, "You may go *without* me."

The import and force of the remaining prepositions will be readily understood, without a particular detail of them. We shall, therefore, conclude this head with observing, that there is a peculiar propriety in distinguishing the use of the prepositions *by* and *with*; which is observable in sentences like the following; "He walks *with* a staff *by* moonlight; He was taken *by* stratagem, and killed *with* a sword." Put the one preposition for the other, and say, "he walks *by* a staff *with* moonlight; he was taken *with* stratagem, and killed *by* a sword;" and it will appear, that they differ in signification more than one, at first view, would be apt to imagine.

Some prepositions have the appearance and effect of conjunctions; as, "After their prisons were thrown open, &c. *Before* I die; They made haste to be prepared *against* their friends arrived;" but if the noun *time*, which is understood, be added, they will lose their conjunctive form; as, "After (the time when) their prisons," &c.

The prepositions *after, before, above, beneath*, and several others, sometimes appear to be adverbs, and may be so considered; as, "They had their reward soon *after*; He died not long *before*; He dwells *above*;" but if the nouns, *time* and *place*, be added, they will lose their adverbial form; as, "He died not long *before that time*," &c.

Before the conclusion of this lecture, we shall present the reader with a list of prepositions, which are derived from the Latin and Greek languages, and which enter into the composition of a great number of our words. If their signification should be carefully studied by the learner, he will be the better qualified to understand, with accuracy, the meaning of a numerous class of words, in which they form a material part.

The Latin prepositions, used in the composition of English words, are the following ; *a, ab, abs, ad, ante, &c.*

A, AB, ABS,—signify *from* or *away* ; as, to *avert*, to turn from ; to *abstract*, to draw away.

AD,—signifies *to* or *at* ; as, to *adhere*, to stick to ; to *admire*, to wonder at.

ANTE,—means *before* ; as *antecedent*, going before ; to *antedate*, to date before.

CIRCUM,—means *round about* ; as, to *circumnavigate*, to sail round.

CON, COM, CO, COL,—signify *together* ; as, to *conjoin*, to join together ; to *compress*, to press together ; to *co-operate*, to work together ; to *collapse*, to fall together.

CONTRA,—*against* ; as, to *contradict*, to speak against.

DE,—*from, down* ; as, to *depart*, to retire from ; to *deject*, to cast down.

DI,—*asunder* ; as, to *dilacerate*, to tear asunder.

DIS,—reverses the meaning of the word, to which it is prefixed ; as, to *disgrace*, to dispossess.

E, EX,—*out* ; as, to *eject*, to cast out ; to *exclude*, to shut out.

EXTRA,—*beyond* ; as, *extraordinary*, beyond the ordinary course.

IN,—before an adjective, like *un*, signifies *privation* ; as, *indecent*, not decent ; before a verb, it has its simple meaning ; as, to *infuse*, to pour in.

INTER,—*between* ; as, to *intervene*, to come between ; to *interpose*, to put between.

INTRO,—*into, inwards* ; as *introduce*, to lead into ; to *introvert*, to turn inwards.

OB,—denotes *opposition* ; as, to *object*, to oppose ; to *obstruct*, to block up ; *obstacle*, something standing in opposition.

PER,—*through* ; as, to *perambulate*, to walk through ; to *perforate*, to bore through.

POST,—*after* ; as, *post-meridian*, afternoon ; *postscript*, written after, that is, after the letter.

PRÆ,—*before* ; as, to *pre-exist*, to exist before ; to *prefix*, to fix before.

PRO,—*forth, or forwards* ; as, to *protrude*, to stretch forth ; to *project*, to shoot forwards.

PRÆTER,—*past, or beyond* ; as, *preterperfect*, past perfect ; *preternatural*, beyond the course of nature.

RE,—*again, or back* ; as, to *reprint*, to print again ; to *retrace*, to trace back.

RETRO,—*backward* ; as, *retrospective*, looking backwards ; *retrograde*, going backwards.

SE,—*aside, apart* ; as, to *seduce*, to draw aside ; to *secrete*, to put aside.

SUB,—*under* ; as, *subterranean*, lying under the earth ; to *subscribe*, to *subsign*, to write under.

SUBTER,—*under* ; as, *subterfluous*, flowing under.

SUPER,—*above, or over* ; as, *superscribe* to write over ; to *superwise*, to look over.

TRANS,—*over, beyond, from one place to another* ; as, to *transport*, to carry over ; to *transgress* to pass beyond ; to *transplant*, to remove from one soil to another.

The Greek prepositions and particles, used in the composition of English words, are the following ; *a, amphi, anti, hyper, &c.*

A,—signifies *privation* ; as, *anonymous*, without name.

AMPHI,—*both, or the two* ; as, *amphibious*, partaking both, or of two natures.

ANTI,—*against* ; as *antimonarchical*, against government by a single person ; *antiministerial*, against the ministry.

HYPER,—*over and above* ; as, *hypercritical*, over, or too critical.

HYPO,—*under*, implying concealment, or disguise ; as *hypocrite*, one dissimulating his real character.

META,—denotes change, or transmutation; as, *metamorphose*, to change the shape.

PERI,—round about; as, *periphrasis*, circumlocution.

SYN, SYM,—together; as *synod*, a meeting or coming together; *sympathy*, fellow feeling, feeling together.

LECTURE X.

SECTION 1.—Of Interjections.

Interjections, in English as well as in other languages, are comprised within a small compass; being merely words *thrown in between* sentences, or the parts of a sentence, to express the passions or emotions of the speaker; as, "Oh, Virtue! how amiable thou art! I fear, alas! for my life."

This part of speech is treated, by Mr. Tooke, with great contempt, as a brutish inarticulate sound, which has as little to do with speech as the neighing of a horse, the barking of a dog, coughing, groaning, shrieking, or any involuntary convulsion with oral sound. These words, however, though at first involuntary, are afterwards uttered from design. A man, desirous to impress another with a particular passion, first contrives to excite it in his own mind, and then utters the sound by which it is expressed. Hence corresponding syllables are committed to writing in works, which depict human passions and manners. They belong to language, as language must include every sound addressed by one man to another, from the highest to the lowest state of mental cultivation. Interjections may be considered as a mixture of involuntary expressions with social discourse. In the use of this part of speech, man is seen to rise from the character of an animal impelled by passion to that of a reflecting being, who displays intelligence and address in influencing his fellow creatures.

Interjections are not so much the signs of thought, as of feeling. That a creature, so inured to articulate sound as man is, should acquire the habit of uttering without reflection, certain vocal sounds, when he is assailed by any strong passion, or becomes conscious of any intense feeling, is natural enough. Indeed by continual practice, this habit becomes so powerful, that, in some cases, we should find it difficult to resist it even if we wished to do so. When attacked by acute pain, it is hardly possible for us to refrain from saying oh! ah! &c. and when we are astonished at any narrative or event, the words, strange! prodigious! indeed! break from us without any effort of the will.

Interjections, though frequent in discourse, do not often occur in elegant composition. Unpractised writers, however, are apt to abound in the use of them, in order, as they imagine, to give pathos to their style; which is nearly the same as if, with the view of rendering conversation witty or humorous one were to interrupt it with frequent peals of laughter. The appearance of violent emotion in others does not always raise violent emotion in us; our hearts are, for the most part, more effectually subdued by a sedate and simple utterance, than by strong interjections and theatrical gestures. At any rate, composition is more graceful than extravagance; and therefore a multitude of these passionate words and particles will generally, at least on common occasions, savour more of levity than of dignity, or of want of thought than of keen sensation. This holds in common discourse as well as in writing. They, who wish to speak often and have little to say, are apt to abound in exclamations; as, *wonderful, amazing, prodigious, O dear, dear me, surprising, astonishing*, and the like; and hence the too frequent use of such words tends to breed a suspicion, that one labours under a scantiness of ideas. Interjections, denoting imprecation, and those, in which the Divine name is irreverently mentioned, are always offensive to a pious mind; and the writer or speaker, who contracts a habit of introducing them, may, without breach of charity, be suspected of profaneness.

SECTION 2.—Of Derivation.

1.—Of the various ways, in which words are derived from one another in English.

Having treated of the different sorts of words, and their various modifications, which is the first part of Etymology, it is now proper to explain the methods, by which one word is derived from another.

Words are derived from one another in various ways; viz.

1. Nouns are derived from verbs.
2. Verbs are derived from nouns, adjectives, and sometimes from adverbs.
3. Adjectives are derived from nouns.
4. Nouns are derived from adjectives.
5. Adverbs are derived from adjectives.

1. Nouns are derived from verbs; as, from 'to love,' comes 'lover;' from 'to visit, visiter;' from 'to survive, survivor;' &c.

In the following instances, and many others, it is difficult to determine whether the verb was deduced from the noun, or the noun from the verb, viz. "Love, to love; hate, to hate; fear, to fear; sleep, to sleep; walk, to walk; ride, to ride; act, to act." &c.

2. Verbs are derived from nouns, adjectives, and sometimes from adverbs; as, from the noun *salt*, comes 'to salt;' from the adjective *warm*, 'to warm;' and from the adverb *forward*, 'to forward.' Sometimes they are formed by lengthening the vowel, or softening the consonant; as, from, 'grass, to graze;' sometimes by adding *en*; as, from, 'length, to lengthen;' especially to adjectives; as, from 'short, to shorten; bright, to brighten.'

3. Adjectives are derived from nouns. in the following manner; Adjectives denoting plenty are derived from nouns by adding *y*; as, from 'Health, healthy; wealth, wealthy; might, mighty.' &c.

Adjectives, denoting the matter out of which any thing is made, are derived from nouns by adding *en*; as, from 'Oak, oaken; wood, wooden; wool, woolen, &c.

Adjectives, denoting abundance are derived from nouns, by adding *ful*; as, from "Joy, joyful; sin, sinful; fruit, fruitful." &c.

Adjectives, denoting plenty, but with some kind of diminution, are derived from nouns, by adding *some*; as, from 'Light, lightsome; trouble, troublesome; toil, toilsome.' &c.

Adjectives denoting want are derived from nouns, by adding *less*; as, from 'Worth, worthless;' from 'care, careless; joy, joyless;" &c.

Adjectives denoting likeness are derived from nouns, by adding *ly*; as, from 'Man, manly; earth, earthly; court, courtly.' &c.

Some adjectives are derived from other adjectives, or from nouns, by adding *ish* to them; which termination, when added to adjectives, imports diminution, or lessening the quality; as, 'White, whitish;' i. e. somewhat white. When added to nouns, it signifies similitude or tendency to a character; as, 'Child, childish; thief, thievish.'

Some adjectives are formed from nouns or verbs, by adding the termination *able*; and those adjectives signify capacity; as, 'Answer, answerable; to change, changeable.'

4. Nouns are derived from adjectives, sometimes by adding the termination *ness*; as, 'White, whiteness, swift, swiftness;' sometimes by adding *th* or *t*, and making a small change in some of the letters; as, 'Long, length; high, height.'

5. Adverbs of quality are derived from adjectives, by adding *ly*, or changing *le* into *ly*; and denote the same quality as the adjectives from which they are derived; as, from 'base,' comes 'basely;' from 'slow, slowly; from 'able, ably.'

There are so many other ways of deriving words from one another, that it

would be extremely difficult, and nearly impossible, to enumerate them. The primitive words of any language are very few ; the derivatives form much the greater number. A few more instances only can be given here.

Some nouns are derived from other nouns by adding the terminations *hood* or *head*, *ship*, *ery*, *wick*, *rick*, *dom*, *ian*, *ment*, and *age*.

Nouns ending in *hood* or *head*, are such as signify character or qualities ; as, 'Manhood, knighthood, falsehood,' &c.

Nouns ending in *ship*, are those that signify office, employment, state, or condition ; as, 'Lordship, stewardship, partnership,' &c. Some in *ship*, are derived from adjectives ; as, 'Hard, hardship,' &c.

Nouns which end in *ery*, signify action or habit ; as, 'Slavery, foolery, prudery,' &c. Some nouns of this sort come from adjectives ; as, 'Brave, bravery,' &c.

Nouns ending in *wick*, *rick*, and *dom*, denote dominion, jurisdiction, or condition ; as, 'Bailliwick, bishoprick, kingdom, freedom,' &c.

Nouns which end in *ian*, are those that signify profession ; as, 'Physician, musician,' &c. Those that end in *ment* and *age*, come generally from the French, and commonly signify the act or habit ; as, 'Commandment, usage.'

Some nouns ending in *ard*, are derived from verbs or adjectives, and denote character or habit ; as, 'Drunk, drunkard ; dote, dotard.'

Some nouns have the form of diminutives ; but these are not many. They are formed by adding the terminations, *kin*, *ling*, *ing*, *ock*, *el*, and the like ; as, 'Lamb, lambkin ; goose, gosling ; duck, duckling ; hill, hillock ; cock, cockerel,' &c.

2.—Of the derivation of English words from their original words in other languages.

That part of derivation, which consists in tracing English words to the Greek, Latin, French, and other languages, must in a great measure be omitted as improper for a work of this kind ; since it would occupy too much room, and since the English scholar is not supposed to be sufficiently acquainted with these languages. The best English dictionaries will, however, furnish some information on this head to those, who are desirous of obtaining it. The learned Horne Tooke, in his "Diversions of Purley," has given an ingenious and highly probable account of the derivation and meaning of many of the conjunctions, adverbs, prepositions, and some of the other parts of speech ; and as the student will doubtless be amused, if not instructed, by tracing, to their Saxon origin, and primitive meaning, some of these words, we shall present him with a specimen of them ; which, we presume, will be sufficient to excite his curiosity, and induce him to examine the subject more extensively.

AND—is derived from the imperative, *an-ad*, which is from the verb *anan-ad*, signifying to accumulate, to add to ; as, 'Two *and* two are four ;' that is, 'Two *add* two are four.'

ABOUT—is from *a*, on, and *bout*, signifying boundary,—on the boundary or confines ; as, "He built a wall round *about* the city."

AMONG or **AMONGST**—comes from the passive participle, *gcmænced*, which is from *gemengan*, to mix.

ASUNDER—comes from the participle, *asunder*, of the verb, *asundrian*, to separate ; and this verb is from *sond*, *sand*.

ATHWART—is derived from the passive participle, *athwæoried*, of the verb, *athwæorian*, to wrest.

BEYOND—comes from *be-geond* ; *geond*, or *goned*, is the passive participle of the verb, *gangan*, to go, to pass ; Be passed, be gone. So that, 'Beyond any place,' means '*be passed* that place,' or, *be* that place *passed*.

BUT—from the imperative, *bot*, of the verb, *botan*, to boot, to superadd, to supply ; as, 'The number, three, is not an even number, *but* an odd ; that is, not an even number, *superadd* (it is) an odd number.'

BUT—from the imperative, *bu-utan*, of the verb, *beon utan*, to be out. It is used by way of exception; as, ‘She regards nobody *but* him;’ that is, ‘nobody *be out* him.’

ELSE—from the imperative, *ales*, of the verb, *alesan*, to dismiss; as, ‘Give me your book, *else* I will take it by force;’ that is, ‘*dismiss* that you will give me your book, I will take it by force.’

IF—comes from *gif*, the imperative of the verb, *gifan*, to give; as, ‘If you live honestly, you will live happy;’ that is ‘*give* you live honestly.”

LEST—from the participle, *lessed*, of the verb, *lesan*, to dismiss.

THOUGH—from *thafig*, the imperative of the verb, *thafigan*, to allow, grant; as, ‘*Though* she is handsome, she is not vain;’ that is, ‘*Allow, grant*, she is handsome.’

UNLESS—comes from *onles*, the imperative of the verb, *onlesan*, to dismiss or remove; as, ‘Troy will be taken, *unless* the palladium be preserved;’ that is, ‘*Remove* the palladium be preserved, Troy will be taken.’

WITH—the imperative of *miþan*, to join; as, ‘The splendid sun *with* his beams genially warmeth the fertile earth;’ that is, ‘The splendid sun, *join* his beams, &c.’

WITHOUT—comes from *myrth-utan*, the imperative of the verb *myrthan utan*, to be out; as, ‘A house *without* a roof;’ that is, ‘A house *be out* a roof.’

YET—is derived from *get* the imperative of the verb, *getan*, to get; as, ‘*Yet* a little while;’ that is, ‘*Get* a little while.’

THROUGH—comes from Gothic and Teutonic words, which signify door, gate, passage; as, ‘The splendid sun, *with* his beams, genially warmeth, *through* the air, the fertile earth;’ that is, ‘The splendid. . . *join* his beams. . . genially warmeth. . . *passage* the air. . . (or the air being the *passage*, or *medium*.) the fertile earth.”

OR—is from Gothic and Saxon words, signifying consequence, offspring, successor, follower, &c. as, ‘We are sick—*cause*, hunger;’ that is, ‘We are sick. . . our sickness being the *consequence* or *offspring* of hunger.’

FOR—is from Saxon and Gothic words signifying cause, motive; as, ‘We are sick *for* hunger;’ that is, “We are sick—*cause*, hunger;” or “hunger being the *cause* of our sickness.”

FROM—is simply the Anglo Saxon and Gothic noun, *frum*, and means beginning, source, fountain, author; as, ‘Figs come *from* Turkey;’ that is, ‘Figs come. . . *beginning* Turkey, or, Turkey the place of *beginning* to come.’

TO—comes from Saxon and Gothic words, which signify action, effect, termination, to act, &c. as, ‘Figs come *from* Turkey *to* England;” that is, ‘Figs come—*beginning* Turkey—*termination* England, or, England the place of *termination*—or *stopping*, or *ending*.’

It is highly probable that the system of the acute grammarian, from whose works these Saxon derivations are borrowed, is founded on truth; and that adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions are corruptions or abbreviations of other parts of speech. But as many of them are derived from obsolete words in our own language, or from words in kindred languages, the radical meaning of which is therefore either obscure or generally unknown; as the system of this very able etymologist is not universally admitted; and as by long prescription, whatever may have been their origin, the words in question appear to have acquired a title to the rank of distinct species;—it seems proper to consider them as such, in an elementary treatise of grammar; especially as this plan coincides with that by which other languages are taught, and will render them less intricate. It is of small moment, by what names and classification we distinguish

words, provided their meaning and use are well understood. A philosophical consideration of the subject may, with great propriety, be entered upon by a grammatical student, when his knowledge and judgment become more improved.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

A few instances of the same words constituting several of the parts of speech.

It was the day, and the scene delightful. We may expect a calm after a storm, and every passion is easier than to calm.

Her temper is a little with content, than a deal, with anxiety. The gay and witty think little of the miseries, which assail softly after them. A little attention will rectify some errors.

Though he is out of danger, he is still alarmed.

He laboured to still the tumult. The waters are commonly the deepest. The morning air is unwholesome. Guilt often casts a damp over our sprightliest hours. The odies damp the sound much more than the hard ones.

Though she is rich and fair, yet she is not noble. They are yet young, and must mend their judgment yet a while.

Many persons are better than we suppose to be. The few and the many have their prepossessions. Few days pass without some clouds.

We hail was very destructive. Hail virtuous source of every good. We hail our friends.

Have you seen the book, that I purchased yesterday? Give me that book. I study I may improve.

The new broom sweeps better than an old one. The boatmen have laboured at the oars all day.

Have been to the fair, and seen a fair one. His lot is hard but fair.

Much money is corrupting. Think much and speak little. He has seen much of the world, and been much caressed.

His years are more than hers; but he has not more knowledge. The more we are blessed, the more grateful we should be. The desire of getting more is rarely satisfied.

He has equal knowledge, but inferior judgment. She is his inferior in sense, but his equal in prudence.

Every being loves its like. We must make a like space between the lines. Behave yourselves like men. We are too apt to like pernicious company. He may go or stay, as he likes.

They strive to learn. He goes to and fro. To his wisdom we owe our privilege. The proportion is ten to one.

He has served them with his utmost ability. When we do our utmost, no more is required.

He is esteemed both on his own account, and on that of his parents. Both of them deserve praise.

Yesterday was a fine day. I rode out yesterday. I shall write to-morrow. To-morrow may be brighter than to-day. We shall arrive to-day.

You must either go or stay, and you may do either, as you please.

Behold! how pleasant it is to see the sun. I behold men walking as trees.

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES IN PARSING.

Prose.

Simulation in youth is the forerunner of hypocrisy in old age. Its first appearance is the fatal omen of growing depravity, and is to be shamed.

We possess not the power of self-government, we shall be the prey of every loose inclination, that chances to arise. Pampered by continual indulgence, all our passions become mutinous and headstrong. Deceit, not reason, will be the ruling principle of our conduct.

How absurdly we spend our time in contending about the trifles of a day, while we are to be preparing for a higher existence. How little do they know of the true happiness

of life, who are strangers to that intercourse of good offices and kind affections which, by a pleasing charm, attaches men to one another, and circulates rational enjoyment from heart to heart.

If we view ourselves, with all our imperfections and failings, in a just light, we shall rather be surprised at our enjoying so many good things, than discontented, because there are any, which we want.

True cheerfulness makes a man happy in himself, and promotes the happiness of all around him. It is the clear and calm sunshine of a mind, illuminated by piety and virtue.

Wherever views of interest, and prospects of return mingle with the feelings of affection sensibility acts an imperfect part, and entitles us to small share of commendation.

Let not your expectations from the years that are to come, rise too high ; and your disappointments will be fewer, and more easily supported.

To live long ought not to be our favourite wish, so much as to live well. By continuing too long on earth, we might only live to witness a greater number of melancholy scenes, and to expose ourselves to a wider compass of human woe.

How many pass away some of the most valuable years of their lives, tossed in a whirlpool of what cannot be called pleasure, so much as mere giddiness and folly.

Look around you with an attentive eye, and weigh characters well, before you connect yourselves too closely with any, who court your society.

The true honour of man consists not in the multitude of riches, or the elevation of rank ; for experience shows, that these may be possessed by the worthless, as well as by the deserving.

Beauty of form has often betrayed its possessor. The flower is easily blasted. It is short lived at the best ; and trifling at any rate, in comparison with the higher, and more lasting beauties of the mind.

A contented temper opens a clear sky, and brightens every object around us. It is in the sullen and dark shade of discontent, that noxious passions, like venomous animals, breed, and prey upon the heart.

Thousands, whom indolence has sunk into contemptible obscurity, might have come forward to usefulness and honour, if idleness had not frustrated the effect of all their powers.

Sloth is like the slowly flowing, putrid stream, which stagnates in the marsh, breeds venomous animals, and poisonous plants ;

and infects, with pestilential vapour whole country around it.

Disappointments derange and offend vulgar minds. The patient and the by a proper improvement, frequently them contribute to their high advancement.

Whatever fortune may rob us of, not take away what is most valuable peace of a good conscience and the prospect of a happy conclusion to trials of life, in a better world.

Be not overcome by the injuries meet with, so as to pursue revenge ; disasters of life, so as to sink into despair by the evil examples of the world, follow them into sin. Overcome by forgiveness ; disasters, by fortitude examples, by firmness of principle.

Sobriety of mind is one of those which the present condition of humankind strongly inculcates. The uncertainty of its enjoyments checks presumptuous multiplicity of its dangers demand great caution. Moderation, vigilance, self-government are duties incumbent but especially on such, as are beginning their journey of life.

The charms and comforts of this life are inexpressible ; and can only be justly prized by those, who possess her. Consciousness of Divine approbation a support, and the steady hope of future happiness communicate a peace and joy, in all the delights of the world bear no comparison.

If we knew how much the pleasures of this life deceive and betray their votaries ; and reflected on the disappointments in pursuit, the dissatisfaction, joyment, or the uncertainty of position which every where attend them ; we cease to be enamoured with these transient joys ;—and should wisely hearts on those virtuous attainments the world can neither give nor take.

Verse.

Needful austerities our wills restrain ;
As thorns fence in the tender plant from harm.

On earth nought precious is obtain'd,
But what is painful too ;
By travel and to travel born,
Our sabbaths are but few.

Who noble ends by noble means obtains,
Or, failing, smiles in exile or in chains ;
Like good Aurelius, let him reign, or bleed
Like Socrates, that man is great indeed.

Our hearts are fasten'd to this world ;
By strong and endless ties ;
But every sorrow cuts a string,
And urges us to rise.

Oft pining cares in rich brocades are
And diamonds glitter on an anxious

Vice is a monster of so frightful mien
As, to be hated, needs but to be seen
Yet seen too oft, familiar with her face,
We first endure, then pity, then embrace

If nothing more than purpose in thy
Thy purpose firm is equal to the end
Who does the best his circumstance
Does well, acts nobly ; angels could

In faith and hope the world will do
But all mankind's concern is charity

To be resign'd when ills betide,
Patient when favours are denied,

I pleas'd with favours giv'n ;
surely this is Wisdom's part,
s that incense of the heart,
ose fragrance smells to Heav'n.

nothing earthly gives, or can destroy,
ul's calm sunshine, and the heartfelt
joy,
irtue's prize.

ives to nature, rarely can be poor ;
ives to fancy, never can be rich.

young, life's journey I began,
glitt'ring prospect charm'd my eyes ;
along th' extended plain,
after joy successive rise.

on I found 'twas all a dream,
I learn'd the fond pursuit to shun ;
few can reach their purpos'd aim,
I thousands daily are undone.

ture is but art unknown to thee ;
ance, direction which thou canst not
e ;
cord, harmony not understood ;
rtial evil, universal good.

's choice is safer than our own ;
I ages past inquire,
the most formidable fate ?
To have our own desire."

as spacious firmament on high,
All the blue ethereal sky,
angled heav'n, a shining frame,
reat original proclaim ;
wearied sun, from day to day,
is Creator's power display,
ablishes, to ev'ry land,
rk of an Almighty hand.

as the evening shades prevail,
pon takes up the wond'rous tale,
ightly, to the list'ning earth,
s the story of her birth ;
all the stars, that round her burn,
I the planets in their turn,
n the tidings as they roll,
read the truth from pole to pole.

t tho' in solemn silence, all
ound this dark terrestrial ball !
ho' nor real voice nor sound,
those radiant orbs be found !
son's ear they all rejoice,
ter forth a glorious voice ;
er singing as they shine,
and, that made us, is Divine."

py the man, whose wish and care
paternal acres bound ;
t to breath his native air
his own ground.

Whose herds with milk, whose fields with
bread,
Whose flocks supply him with attire ;
Whose trees, in summer, yield him shade,
In winter, fire.

Bless'd, who can unconcern'dly find
Hours, days, and years slide soft away,
In health of body, peace of mind,
Quiet hy day ;

Sound sleep by night ; study and ease
Together mix'd ; sweet recreation ;
And innocence, which most does please,
With meditation.

Thus let me live, unseen, unknown,
Thus unlamented let me die ;
Steal from the world, and not a stone
Tell where I lie.

VITAL spark of heavenly flame !
Quit, O quit this mortal frame !
Trembling, hoping, lingering, flying ;
Oh the pain, the bliss of dying !
Cease, fond nature ! cease thy strife,
And let me languish into life.

Hark ! they whisper ; angels say,
Sister spirit, come away.
What is this absorbs me quite,
Steals my senses, shuts my sight,
Drowns my spirit, draws my breath ?
Tell me, my soul ! can this be death ?

The world recedes ; it disappears !
Heav'n opens on my eyes ! my ears
With sounds seraphic ring ;
Lend, lend your wings ! I mount ! I fly !
O grave ! where is thy victory ?
O death ! where is thy sting ?

I AM monarch of all I survey,
My right there is none to dispute ;
From the centre all round to the sea,
I am lord of the fowl and the brute.
O solitude ! where are the charms
That sages have seen in thy face ?
Better dwell in the midst of alarms,
Than reign in this horrible place.

I am out of humanity's reach,
Must finish my journey alone,
Never hear the sweet music of speech,
I start at the sound of my own.
The beasts, that roam over the plain,
My form with indifference see ;
They are so unacquainted with man,
Their tameness is shocking to me.

Society, friendship, and love,
Divinely bestowed upon man,
O, had I the wings of a dove,
How soon would I taste you again !
My sorrows I then might assuage
In the ways of religion and truth,

Might learn from the wisdom of age,
And be cheered by the sallies of youth.

Religion ! what treasure untold
Resides in that heavenly word !
More precious than silver and gold,
Or all that this earth can afford.
But the sound of the church going bell
These valleys and rocks never heard,
Never sighed at the sound of a knell,
Or smiled when a sabbath appeared.

Ye winds that have made me your sport,
Convey, to this desolate shore,
Some cordial endearing report
Of a land I shall visit no more.
My friends, do they now and then send
A wish or a thought after me ?
O tell me I yet have a friend,
Though a friend I am never to see.

How fleet is a glance of the mind !
Compared with the speed of its flight,
The tempest itself lags behind,
And the swift-winged arrows of light.
When I think of my own native land,
In a moment I seem to be there ;
But alas ! recollection at hand
Soon hurries me back to despair.

But the sea-fowl is gone to her nest,
The beast is laid down in his lair ;
Even here is a season of rest,
And I to my cabin repair.
There's mercy in every place,
And mercy, encouraging thought !
Gives even affliction a grace,
And reconciles man to his lot.

Weak and irresolute is man ;
The purpose of to-day,
Woven with pains into his plan,
To-morrow rends away.

The bow well bent, and smart the spring,
Vice seems already slain ;
But passion rudely snaps the string,
And it revives again.

Some foe to his upright intent
Finds out his weaker part ;
Virtue engages his assent,
But pleasure wins his heart.
'Tis here the folly of the wise
Through all his art we view ;
And, while his tongue the charge denies,
His conscience owns it true.

Bound on a voyage of awful length,
And dangers little known,
A stranger to superior strength,
Man vainly trusts his own.

But oars alone can ne'er prevail,
To reach the distant coast ;
The breath of heaven must swell the sail,
Or all the toil is lost.

On Linden, when the sun was low,
All bloodless lay the untrodden snow ;
And dark as winter was the flow
Of I-ser, rolling rapidly.

But Linden saw another sight,
When the drum beat at dead of night ;
Commanding fires of death to light
The darkness of her scenery.

By torch and trumpet fast array'd,
Each horseman drew his battle blade,
And furious every charger neigh'd,
To join the dreadful revelry.

Then shook the hills with thunder riven,
Then rush'd the steed to battle driven,
And louder than the bolts of heaven,
Far flash'd the red artillery.

But redder yet that light shall glow,
On Linden's hills of stained snow,
And bloodier yet the torrent flow
Of I-ser, rolling rapidly.

'Tis morn, but scarce yon level sun
Can pierce the war-clouds, rolling dun,
Where furious Frank, and fiery Hun,
Shout in their sulph'rous canopy.

The combat deepens. On, ye brave,
Who rush to glory or the grave !
Wave, Munich, all thy banners wave !
And charge with all thy chivalry !

Few, few shall part where many meet !
The snow shall be their winding sheet,
And every turf beneath their feet,
Shall be a soldier's sepulchre.

When all within is peace,
How nature seems to smile !
Delights that never cease,
The live-long day beguile.
From morn to dewy eve,
With open hand she showers
Fresh blessings to deceive,
And soothe the silent hours.

It is content of heart
Gives nature power to please ;
The mind that feels no smart,
Enlivens all it sees ;
Can make a wintry sky
Seem bright as smiling May,
And evening's closing eye
As peep of early day.

The vast majestic globe,
So beauteously arrayed
In nature's various robe,
With wondrous skill displayed,
Is to a mourner's heart
A dreary wild at best ;
It flutters to depart,
And longs to be at rest.

PART III.

LECTURES ON SYNTAX.

LECTURE I.—INTRODUCTORY.

Syntax is derived from *Suntaxis*, which signifies the construction or connexion of the words of a language into sentences or phrases. It is the office of this part of grammar to consider the natural suitableness of words with respect to another, in order to make them agree in gender, number, person, mood, &c. Several parts of speech are, with regard to language, what materials are with regard to building. How well prepared soever they may be, they will not make a house, unless they be placed together conformably to the rules of architecture. It is, properly, the Syntax, that gives the form to language; and that, on which turns the most essential part of grammar.

Now, *Orthography* teaches us how to spell words; *Etymology* teaches us of inflections, or how to decline, compare, and conjugate them; and *Syntax* teaches us how to put them together, or to form them into sentences, in a proper order. Thus, the first part of grammar treats principally of *letters*; the second of *words*; and the third, of *sentences*. It may, therefore, be proper here to explain the nature of sentences more fully, than we have hitherto done.

Sentences are denominated *simple*, which contain but one finite verb; and *compound*, which contain more finite verbs than one. It is not, therefore, the number of words in a sentence, that makes it compound; but the circumstance of having more than one finite verb, *i. e.* a verb agreeing with a nominative.

The following sentence, "Grass grows in great abundance in all the northern States, particularly in New England," contains but one finite verb, *grows*, agreeing with *grass*; and is therefore a simple sentence. But the following, though short, are compound sentences; "Grass grows, and water runs;" "Men, who are prudent, speak little." Each of these sentences contains two simple sentences, joined together by a connective word; the first, *grass grows, water runs*, connected by the copulative conjunction, *and*; the second, *men speak little, who are prudent*, connected by the relative pronoun, *who*.

The members of a compound sentence must be connected by a conjunction or a relative pronoun; if they are connected by a preposition, the sentence remains simple.

As sentences themselves are divided into simple and compound, so the members of sentences may be divided likewise into simple and compound members; whole sentences, whether simple or compounded, may become members of other sentences, by means of some additional connexion; as, "The ox knoweth his owner, and the ass his master's crib; but Israel doth not know, my people do not consider." This sentence consists of two compounded members, each of which is subdivided into two simple members, which are properly called clauses. There are three sorts of simple sentences; the *explicative*, or explaining; the *interrogative*, or asking; the *imperative*, or commanding.

A *explicative* sentence is when a thing is said to be or not to be, to do or

not to do, to suffer or not to suffer, in a direct manner ; as, ' I am ; thou writest ; Thomas is loved.' If the sentence be negative, the adverb *not* is placed after the auxiliary, or after the verb itself when it has no auxiliary ; as, " I did not touch him ;" or, " I touched him not."

In an interrogative sentence, or when a question is asked, the nominative case follows the principal verb or the auxiliary ; as, " Was it he ?" " Did Alexander conquer the Persians ?"

In an imperative sentence, when a thing is commanded to be, to do, to suffer, or not, the nominative case likewise follows the verb or the auxiliary ; as, " Go thou, traitor !" " Do thou go ;" " Haste ye away ;" unless the verb *let* be used ; as, " Let us be gone."

To produce the agreement and right disposition of words in a sentence, the following rules and observations should be carefully studied.

These rules are numbered according to the General View ; but arranged here according to the order of the parts of speech to which they relate.

LECTURE II.—OF THE ARTICLES.

RULE I.—Articles must agree with the nouns, which they limit or define ; as, "*A* man ; *a* sweet apple ; *the* house ; *the* principal rivers."

Remarks—The article, *a* or *an*, agrees with nouns in the singular number only, individually or collectively ; as, "*A* christian, *an* infidel, *a* score, *a* thousand." The definite article, *the*, may agree with nouns in the singular and plural number ; as, "*The* garden, *the* houses, *the* stars."

The articles are often properly omitted ; when used, they should be justly applied according to their distinct nature ; as, "*Gold is corrupting ; the sea is green ; a lion is bold.*"

As the articles are often misapplied, it may be useful to exhibit a few instances of misapplication ; " and I persecuted this way unto *the* death." The apostle does not mean any particular sort of death, but death in general ; the definite article therefore is improperly used ; it ought to be " unto death," without any article.

" When he, the Spirit of Truth, is come, he will guide you into all truth ;" that is, according to this translation, " into all truth whatsoever, into truth of all kinds ;" very different from the meaning of the evangelist, and from the original, " into all *the* truth ;" that is, " into all evangelical truth, all truth necessary for you to know."

" Who breaks a butterfly upon *a* wheel ?" it ought to be "*the* wheel," denoting an instrument for the particular purpose of torturing criminals. " The Almighty hath given reason to *a* man to be a light unto him ;" it should rather be " to *man*," in general. " This day is salvation come to this house, forasmuch as he also is *the* son of Abraham ;" it ought to be, " *a* son of Abraham."

These remarks may serve to show the great importance of the proper use of the article, and the excellence of the English language in this respect ; which by means of its two articles, does most precisely determine the extent of the signification of common nouns.

Exercises in False Syntax.—The fire, the air, the earth, and the water are four elements of the philosophers.—Reason was given to a man to control his passions.—We have within us an intelligent principle, distinct from body and from matter.—A man is the noblest work of creation.—Wiseest and best men sometimes commit errors.—Beware of drunkenness ; it impairs understanding ; wastes an estate ; destroys a reputation ; consumes the body ; and renders the man of the brightest parts the common jest of the meanest clown.—He is a much better writer than a reader.—The king has conferred on him the title of

a duke.—There are some evils of life which equally affect prince and people.—Such qualities honour the nature of a man.—Purity has its seat in the heart ; but extends its influence over so much of outward conduct, as to form the great and material part of a character.—The profligate man is seldom or never found to be the good husband, the good father, or the beneficent neighbour.—True charity is not the meteor, which occasionally glares ; but the luminary, which, in its orderly course, dispenses benignant influence

NOTE 1.—A nice distinction of the sense is sometimes made by the use or omission of the article *a*. If I say, “ He behaved with *a* little reverence ;” my meaning is positive. If I say, “ He behaved with little reverence ;” my meaning is negative. And these two are by no means the same, or to be used in the same cases. By the former, I rather praise a person ; by the latter, I dispraise him. For the sake of this distinction, which is a very useful one, we may better bear the seeming impropriety of the article *a* before nouns of number. When I say, “ There were few men with him ;” I speak diminutively, and mean to represent them as inconsiderable ; whereas, when I say, “ There were *a* few men with him ;” I evidently intend to make the most of them.

Exercises in False Syntax.—He has been much censured for conducting himself with a little attention to his business.—So bold a breach of order called for little severity in punishing the offender.—His error was accompanied with so little contrition and candid acknowledgement, that he found a few persons to intercede for him.—There were so many mitigating circumstances attending his conduct, particularly that of his open confession, that he found few friends, who were disposed to interest themselves in his favour.—As his misfortunes were the fruit of his own obstinacy, a few persons pitied him.

NOTE 2.—In general, it may be sufficient to prefix the article to the former of two words in the same construction ; though the French never fail to repeat it in this case. “ There were many hours both of the night and day, which he could spend without suspicion, in solitary thought.” It might have been “ of the night and of the day.” And, for the sake of emphasis, we often repeat the article in a series of epithets. “ He hoped that this title would secure him *an* ample and *an* independent authority.”

Exercises in False Syntax.—The fear of shame, and desire of approbation prevent many bad actions.—In this business, he was influenced by a just and generous principle.—He was fired with desire of doing something, though he knew not yet, with distinctness, either end or means.

NOTE 3.—In common conversation, and in familiar style, we frequently omit the articles, which might be inserted with propriety in writing, especially in a grave style. ‘ At worst, time might be gained by this expedient.’ ‘ At the worst,’ would have been better in this place. ‘ Give me here John Baptist’s head.’ There would have been more dignity in saying, “ John *the* Baptist’s head ;” or, “ The head of John the Baptist.”

Exercises in False Syntax.—At worst, I could but incur a gentle reprimand.—At best, his gift was a poor offering, when we consider his estate.

Remarks.—There is, in some instances, a peculiar delicacy in the application, or omission, of the indefinite article. This will be seen in the following instances. We commonly say, “ I do not intend to turn critic on this occasion ;”—not “ turn *a* critic.” On the other hand, we properly add the article in this phrase ; “ I do not intend to become *a* critic in this business ;”—not “ to become critic.” It is correct to say, with the article, “ He is in *a* great hurry ;” but not, “ in great hurry.” And yet, in this expression, “ He is in great haste” the article should be omitted ;—as it would be improper to say, “ He is in *a* great haste.” A nice discernment, and accurate attention to the best usage are necessary to direct us, on these occasions

The article *the* has sometimes a good effect in distinguishing a person by an epithet. “ In the history of Henry the fourth, by Father Daniel, we are sur-

prised at not finding him *the* great man.' "I own I am often surprised that he should have treated so coldly, a man so much *the* gentleman."

This article is often elegantly put, after the manner of the French, for the pronoun possessive; as, "He looks him full in *the* face; that is, 'in *his* face.' 'In his absence they were to strike *the* forehead on the ground;' that is, 'their foreheads.'

We sometimes, according to the French manner, repeat the same article, when the adjective, on account of any clause depending upon it, is put after the noun. 'Of all the considerable governments among the Alps, a commonwealth is a constitution *the* most adapted of any to the poverty of those countries.' 'With such a precious title as that of blood, which, with the multitude, is always a claim, *the* strongest, and *the* most easily comprehended.' 'They are not the men in the nation, *the* most difficult to be replaced.'

The definite article is likewise used to distinguish between things, which are individually different, but have one generic name, and things, which are, in truth, one and the same, but are characterized by several qualities. If we say, 'The ecclesiastical and secular powers concurred in this measure,' the expression is ambiguous, as far as language can render it such. The reader's knowledge, as Dr. Campbell observes, may prevent his mistaking it; but if such modes of expression be admitted, where the sense is clear, they may inadvertently be imitated, in cases where the meaning would be obscure, if not entirely misunderstood. The error might have been avoided, either by repeating the noun, or by subjoining the noun to the first adjective, and prefixing the article to both adjectives; or by placing the noun after both adjectives, the article being prefixed in the same manner; as, 'The ecclesiastical powers, and the secular powers;—or better, 'The ecclesiastical powers and the secular;—or, 'The ecclesiastical, and the secular powers.' The repetition of the article shows, that the second adjective is not an additional epithet to the same subject, but belongs to a subject totally different, though expressed by the same generic name. 'The lords spiritual and temporal,' is a phraseology objectionable on the same principle, though now so long sanctioned by usage, that we scarcely dare question its propriety. The subjects are different, though they have but one generic name. The phrase should, therefore, have been, 'The spiritual, and the temporal lords.'—On the contrary, when two or more adjectives belong, as epithets, to one and the same thing, the other arrangement is to be preferred; as, 'The high and mighty States.' Here both epithets belong to one subject. 'The States high and mighty' would convey the same idea.

The indefinite article has sometimes, the meaning of *every* or *each*; as, 'They cost five shillings a dozen;' that is, 'every dozen.'

"A man he was to all the country dear,

And passing rich with forty pounds a year.—*Goldsmith.*

that is, 'every year.'

There is a particular use of the indefinite article which deserves attention, as ambiguity may, by this means, be, in some measure, avoided. Thus, if we say, 'He is a better soldier than scholar,' the article is suppressed before the second term, and the expression is equivalent to, 'He is more warlike than learned;' or, 'He possesses the qualities, which form the soldier, in a greater degree than those, which constitute the scholar.' If we say, 'He would make a better soldier than a scholar,' the article is prefixed to the second term, and the meaning is, 'He would make a better soldier, than a scholar would make;' that is, 'He has more of the constitutional qualities of a soldier, than are to be found in any literary man.' These two phraseologies are frequently confounded, which seldom fails to produce uncertainty of meaning. In the former case, the subject, as possessing different qualities in various degrees, is compared with *itself*; in the latter, it is compared with something else.

LECTURE III.—OF ADJECTIVES.

RULE II.—Adjectives must agree with the nouns, which they qualify ;—as, ‘A good man ; a tall tree.’

Remarks.—Every adjective agrees with some noun, either expressed or understood, in gender, number, and case ; but as the adjective is not varied on account of gender, number, or case, a change of these properties in the noun does not require any correspondent variation in the adjective. *Numeral* adjectives, however, signifying more than one, are incorrectly associated with nouns in the singular number. Such expressions, therefore, as the following, are not grammatical. “Butter is worth *two shilling* a pound ; A chaldron contains *thirty-six bushel* ; A tree *fifty foot* high ; *Ten year* ago, *forty ton* of hay grew on his farm.”

NOTE 1.—Adjectives are sometimes improperly applied as adverbs ; as, ‘Indifferent honest ; excellent well ; miserable poor ;’ instead of ‘Indifferently honest ; excellently well ; miserably poor.’ ‘He behaved himself conformable to that great example ; *conformably*. Endeavour to live hereafter suitable to a person in thy station ; *suitably*. I can never think so very mean of him ; *meanly*. He describes this river agreeable to the common reading ; *agreeably*. Agreeable to my promise, I now write ; *agreeably*. Thy exceeding great reward.’ When united to an adjective, or adverb not ending in *ly*, the word *exceeding* has *ly* added to it ; as, ‘exceedingly dreadful, exceedingly great ;’ but when it is joined to an adverb or adjective, having that termination, the *ly* is omitted ; as, ‘Some men think exceeding clearly, and reason exceeding forcibly ; She appeared, on this occasion, exceeding lovely.’ ‘He acted in this business *bolder* than was expected ; They behaved the *noblest*, because they were disinterested.’ They should have been ‘*more boldly ; more nobly*.’—The adjective pronoun *such* is often misapplied ; as, ‘He was such an extravagant young man, that he spent his whole patrimony in a few years ;’ it should be, ‘*so extravagant a young man*.’ I never before saw such large trees ; *saw trees so large*.’ When we refer to the species or nature of a thing, the word *such* is properly applied ; as, ‘Such a temper is seldom found ;’ but when degree is signified, we use the word *so* ; as, ‘So bad a temper is seldom found.’

Adverbs are likewise improperly used as adjectives ; as, ‘The tutor addressed him in terms rather warm, but suitably to his offence ; *suitable*. They were seen wandering about solitarily and distressed ; *solitary*. He lived in a manner agreeable to the dictates of reason and religion ; *agreeable*. The study of syntax should be previously to that of punctuation ; *previous*.’

Young persons, who study grammar, find it difficult to decide, in particular constructions, whether an adjective, or an adverb, ought to be used. A few observations, on this point, may serve to inform their judgment, and direct their determination. They should carefully attend to the definitions of the adjective and the adverb ; and consider whether in the case in question, *quality* or *manner*, is indicated. In the former case, an adjective is proper ; in the latter, an adverb. A number of examples will illustrate this direction, and prove useful on other occasions.

She looks cold—She looks coldly on him.

He feels warm—He feels warmly the insult offered to him.

He became sincere and virtuous—He became sincerely virtuous.

She lives free from care—He lives freely at another’s expense.

Harriet always appears neat—She dresses neatly.

Charles has grown great by his wisdom—He has grown greatly in reputation.

They now appear happy—They now appear happily in earnest.

The statement seems exact—The statement seems exactly in point.

The verb, *to be*, in all its moods and tenses, generally requires the word, immediately connected with it, to be an adjective, not an adverb; and, consequently, when this verb can be substituted for any other, without varying the sense, or the construction, that other verb must also be connected with an adjective. The following sentences elucidate these observations.—
“That behaviour was suitable to his station; This is agreeable to our interest; Rules should be conformable to sense; The rose smells sweet; How

sweet the hay smells! How delightful the country appears! How pleasant the fields look! The clouds look dark; How black the sky looked! The apples taste sour; How bitter the plums tasted! He feels happy.” In all these sentences, we can, with perfect propriety, substitute some tenses of the verb, *to be*, for the other verbs. But in the following sentences, we cannot do this. “The dog smells disagreeably; George feels exquisitely; How pleasantly she looks at us!”

The directions, contained in this note, are offered as useful, not as complete and unexceptionable. Anomalies in language every where encounter us; but we must not reject rules, because they are attended with exceptions.

Exercises in False Syntax.—She reads proper, writes very neat, and composes accurate.—He was extreme prodigal, and his property is now near exhausted.—They generally succeeded; for they lived conformable to the rules of prudence.—We may reason very clear, and exceeding strong, without knowing that there is such a thing as a syllogism.—He had many virtues, and was exceeding beloved.—The amputation was exceeding well performed, and saved the patient's life.—He came agreeable to his promise, and conducted himself suitable to the occasion.—He speaks very fluent, reads excellent, but does not think very coherent.—He behaved himself submissive, and was exceeding careful not to give offence.—They rejected the advice, and conducted themselves exceedingly indirectly.—He is a person of great abilities, and exceeding upright; and is like to be a very useful member of the community.—The conspiracy was the easier discovered from its being known to many.—Not being fully acquainted with the subject, he could affirm no stronger than he did.—He was so deeply impressed with the subject, that few could speak nobler upon it.—He addressed several exhortations to them, suitably to their circumstances.—Conformably to their vehemence of thought, was their vehemence of gesture.—We should implant, in the minds of youth, such seeds and principles of piety, as are likely to take soonest and deepest root.—Such an amiable disposition will secure universal regard.—Such distinguished virtues seldom occur.

NOTE 2.—Double comparatives and superlatives should be avoided; such as, ‘A worse conduct; On lesser hopes; A more serene temper; The most straitest sect; A more superior work.’ They should be, ‘worse conduct; less hopes; a more serene temper; the straitest sect; a superior work.’

Exercises in False Syntax.—’Tis more easier to build two chimneys than to maintain one.—The tongue is like a race-horse, which runs the faster the lesser weight it carries.—The pleasures of the understanding are more preferable, than those of the imagination, or of sense. The nightingale sings;—hers is the most sweetest voice in the grove.—The Most Highest hath created us for his glory, and our own happiness.—The Supreme Being is the most wisest, the most powerfulest and the most best of beings.

NOTE 3.—Adjectives, that have in themselves a superlative signification, do not properly admit of the superlative, or comparative form superadded; such as, ‘Chief, extreme, perfect, right, universal, supreme,’ &c. which are sometimes improperly written, ‘Chiefest, extremest, perfectest, rightest, most universal,

most supreme,' &c. The following expressions are therefore improper. 'He sometimes claims admission to the *chiefest* offices ; The quarrel became *so universal* and national ; A method of attaining the *rightest* and greatest happiness.' The phrases, so perfect, so right, so extreme, so universal, &c. are incorrect ; because they imply that one thing is less perfect, less extreme, &c. than another, which is not possible.

Exercises in False Syntax.—Virtue confers the supremest dignity on man ; and should be his chiefest desire.—His assertion was more true than that of his opponent ; nay, the words of the latter were most untrue.—His work is perfect ; his brother's more perfect ; and his father's the most perfect of all.—He gave the fullest and the most sincere proof of the truest friendship.

NOTE 4.—Inaccuracies are often found in the way in which the degrees of comparison are applied and construed. The following are examples of wrong construction in this respect ; 'This noble nation hath, of all others, admitted fewer corruptions.' The word *fewer* is here construed precisely as if it were the superlative. It should be, 'This noble nation hath admitted fewer corruptions than any other.' We commonly say, 'This is the weaker of the two ;' or 'The weakest of the two ;'—but the former is the regular mode of expression, because there are only two things compared. 'The vice of covetousness is what enters deepest into the soul of any other. He celebrates the church of England as the most perfect of all others.' Both these modes of expression are faulty ; we should not say, 'The best of any man,' or 'The best of any other man,' for 'the best of men.' The sentences may be corrected by substituting the comparative in the room of the superlative. 'The vice, &c. is what enters deeper into the soul than any other. He celebrates, &c. as more perfect than any other.' It is also possible to retain the superlative, and render the expression grammatical. 'Covetousness, of all vices, enters the deepest into the soul. He celebrates, &c. as the most perfect of all churches.' These sentences contain other errors, against which it is proper to caution the learner. The words *deeper* and *deepest*, being intended for adverbs, should have been *more deeply*, *most deeply*. The phrases *more perfect*, and *most perfect*, are improper ; because perfection admits of no degree of comparison. We may say *nearer* or *nearest* to perfection, or more or less imperfect.

Exercises in False Syntax.—A talent of this kind would, perhaps, prove the likeliest of any other to succeed.—He is the strongest of the two, but not the wisest.—He spoke with so much propriety, that I understood him the best of all the others who spoke upon the subject.—Eve was the fairest of all her daughters.

NOTE 5.—In some cases adjectives should not be separated from their nouns, even by words which modify their meaning, and make but one sense with them ; as, 'A large enough number surely.' It should be, 'A number large enough.' 'The lower sort of people are good enough judges of one not very distant from them.'

Exercises in False Syntax.—He spoke in a distinct enough manner to be heard by the whole assembly.—Thomas is equipped with a new pair of shoes, and a new pair of gloves ; he is the servant of an old rich man.—The two first in the row are cherry-trees, the two others are pear-trees.

Remarks.—The adjective is usually placed before its noun ; as, 'A generous man ; How amiable a woman !' The instances, in which it comes after the noun, are the following.

1st, When something depends upon the adjective ; and when it gives a better sound, especially in poetry ; as, 'A man *generous* to his enemies ; Feed me with food *convenient* for me ; A tree three feet *thick* ; A body of troops fifty thousand *strong* ; The torrent tumbling through rocks *abrupt*.'

2d, When the adjective is emphatical ; as, 'Alexander the *Great* ; Lewis the *Bold* ; Goodness *infinite* ; Wisdom *unsearchable*.'

3d, When several adjectives belong to one noun ; as, 'A man, just, wise, and charitable ; A woman modest, sensible, and virtuous.'

4th, When the adjective is preceded by an adverb ; as, 'A boy regularly studious ; A girl unaffectedly modest.'

5th, When the verb *to be*, in any of its variations, comes between a noun and an adjective, the adjective may frequently either precede, or follow it ; as, 'The man is *happy* ;' or, '*happy* is the man, who makes virtue his choice ;— The interview was *delightful* ;' or '*delightful* was the interview.'

6th, When the adjective expresses some circumstance of a noun placed after an active verb ; as, 'Vanity often renders its possessor *despicable*.' In an exclamatory sentence, the adjective generally precedes the noun ; as, 'How *despicable* does vanity often render its possessor !'

There is sometimes great beauty as well as force, in placing the adjective before the verb, and the noun immediately after it ; as, 'Great is the Lord ! before and true are thy ways, thou King of Saints !'

Sometimes the word *all* is emphatically put after a number of particulars comprehended under it. 'Ambition, interest, honour, *all* concurred.' Sometimes a noun, which likewise comprehends the preceding particulars, is used in conjunction with this adjective ; as, 'Royalists, republicans, churchmen, secretaries, courtiers, patriots, *all parties*, concurred in the illusion.'

A noun with its adjective is reckoned as one compound word, whence they often take another adjective, and sometimes a third, and so on ; as, 'An old man ; a good old man ; a very learned, judicious, good old man.'

Though the adjective always relates to a noun, it is, in many instances, put as if it were absolute ; especially where the noun has been mentioned before, or is easily understood, though not expressed ; as, 'I often survey the green fields, as I am very fond of *green* ;' 'The wise, the virtuous, the honoured, famed, and great,' that is, 'persons ;' 'The twelve,' that is, 'apostles ;' 'Have compassion on the *poor* ; be seet to the *lame*, and eyes to the *blind*.'

Nouns are often used as adjectives. In this case, the word so used is sometimes unconnected with the noun to which it relates ; sometimes connected with it by a hyphen ; and sometimes joined to it, so as to make the two words coalesce. The total separation is proper, when either of the two words is long, or when they cannot be fluently pronounced as one word ; as, an 'adjective pronoun, a silver watch, a stone cistern ;' the hyphen is used, when both the words are short, and are readily pronounced as a single word ; as, 'coal-mine, corn-mill, fruit-tree ;' the words coalesce, when they are readily pronounced together ; have a long established association ; and are in frequent use ; as, 'honeycomb, gingerbread, iukhorn, Yorkshire.'

Sometimes the adjective becomes a noun, and has another adjective joined to it ;—as, 'The chief good ; The vast immense of space.' Some adjectives of number are more easily converted into nouns than others. Thus we more readily say, 'a million of men,' than 'a thousand of men.' On the other hand, it will be hardly allowable to say 'a million men ;' whereas, 'a thousand men' is quite familiar. Yet in the plural number, a different construction seems to be required. We say, 'some hundreds,' or 'thousands,' as well as, 'millions of men.' Perhaps, on this account, the words *millions*, *hundreds*, and *thousands*, will be said to be nouns.

An adjective put without a noun, with the definite article before it, becomes a noun in sense and meaning, and is used as a noun, generally of the plural number ; as, 'The *good* are rewarded ;' 'The *sincere* are esteemed.'

When an adjective has a preposition before it, the substantive being understood, it takes the nature of an adverb, and is considered as an adverb ; as, 'In general, in particular, &c. that is, 'Generally, particularly.'

Enow was formerly used as the plural of *enough* ; but it is now obsolete.

Adjectives often agree with the infinitive mood or part of a sentence ; as, 'To see the sun is *pleasant*.' Here the adjective, *pleasant*, agrees with the phrase, *to see the sun*.'

LECTURE IV.—OF NOUNS.

RULE III. Two or more nouns, signifying the same thing, must agree in case ;—as, "*Paul, the Apostle ; Death, the King of terrors.*"

Remarks.—Nouns, thus circumstanced, are said to be *in apposition* to each other ; that is, they are *put together*, as different names of the same person or thing. The latter noun, therefore, signifies the same object as the former, and serves merely to explain or describe it ; as, '*Religion, the support of adversity, adorns prosperity.*'—The interposition of a relative and verb will sometimes break the construction ; as, '*Religion, which is the support of virtue, adorns prosperity.*' Here *support* is in the nominative case after *is*, according to rule XXII.

Nouns are not unfrequently set in apposition to sentences, or clauses of sentences. 'If a man had a positive idea of infinite, either space or duration, he could add two infinities together ; nay, make one infinite infinitely bigger than another ; *absurdities* too gross to be confuted.' Here the *absurdities* are the whole preceding propositions. 'You are too humane and considerate ; *things* which few people can be charged with.' Here *things* are in opposition to *humane* and *considerate*. This construction is not to be recommended, when the parts of the sentence are long, or numerous. The first of the preceding examples is, therefore, improvable. It would have been better if a fresh sentence had been introduced, thus ; 'These are *absurdities*,' &c.

Sometimes a pronoun is emphatically set in apposition to a preceding noun ; as, '*Augustus, the Roman Emperor, he, who succeeded Julius Cæsar, is differently described by historians.*' In such instances, the pronoun must be in the same case with the noun, to which it is set in apposition.

Exercises in False Syntax.—They slew Varus, he that was mentioned before.—It was Paul, him who preached to the gentiles.—They killed Stephen, the martyr, he that was stoned.—I saw John and his sister, they who came to your house.—My friends gave me this present, them that we visited yesterday.—We must respect the good and the wise, they who endeavour to enlighten us, and make us better.

RULE IV.—One noun governs another, signifying a different thing, in the possessive case ; as, '*My father's house ; Man's happiness ; Virtue's reward.*'

Remarks.—The preposition *of*, joined to a noun, is frequently equivalent to the possessive case ; as, '*A Christian's hope.*' '*The hope of a Christian.*' But it is only so, when the expression can be converted into the regular form of the possessive case. We can say, '*Virtue's reward,*' and '*The reward of virtue ;*' but though it is proper to say, '*A crown of gold,*' we cannot convert the expression into the possessive case, and say, '*Gold's crown.*'

Nouns govern pronouns, as well as nouns, in the possessive case ; as, '*Every tree is known by its fruit ;*' '*Goodness brings its reward ;*' '*That desk is mine.*'

The possessive *its* is often improperly used for *'tis* or *it is* ; as, '*Its my book ;*' instead of '*It is my book.*'

The pronoun *his*, when detached from the noun to which it relates, is to be considered, not as a possessive pronoun, but as the possessive case of the personal pronoun ; as, '*This composition is his.*' '*Whose book is that ?*' '*His.*'

If we use the noun itself, we should say, 'This composition is John's.' 'Whose book is this?' 'Eliza's.' The position will be still more evident when we consider that both the pronouns in the following sentences must have a similar construction; 'Is it *her*, or *his* honour, that is tarnished?' 'It is not *hers*, but *his*.'

Sometimes a noun in the possessive case stands alone, the latter one, by which it is governed, being understood; as, 'I called at the bookseller's,' this is, 'at the bookseller's shop.'

Exercises in False Syntax.—My ancestors' virtue is not mine.—His brother's offence will not condemn him.—I will not destroy the city for ten sake.—Nevertheless, Asa, his heart was perfect with the Lord.—A mother's tenderness and a father's care, are nature's gifts for man's advantage.—A man's manner's frequently influence his fortune.—Wisdom's precepts form the good man's interest and happiness.

NOTE 1.—If several nouns come together in the possessive case, the apostrophe with *s* is annexed to the last, and understood to the rest; as, 'John and Eliza's books; This was my father, mother, and uncle's advice.' But when any word intervenes, perhaps on account of the increased pause, the sign of the possessive should be annexed to each; as, 'They are John's as well as Eliza's books;' 'I had the physician's, the surgeon's, and the apothecary's assistance.' The following distinction on this point appears to be worthy of attention. When any subject or subjects are considered as the common property of two or more persons, the sign of the possessive case is affixed only to the name of the last person; as, 'This is Henry, William, and Joseph's estate.' But when several subjects are considered as belonging separately to distinct individuals, the names of the individuals have the sign of the possessive case annexed to each of them, as, 'these are Henry's, William's and Joseph's estates.' It is, however, better to say, 'It was the advice of my father, mother, and uncle;' 'I had the assistance of the physician, the surgeon, and the apothecary;' 'This estate belongs in common to Henry, William, and Joseph.'

Exercises in False Syntax.—It was the men's, women's, and children's lot to suffer great calamities.—Peter's, John's, and Andrew's occupation was that of fishermen.—This was sure gained the king, as well as the people's approbation.—Not only the counsel's and attorney's, but the judge's opinion, also, favoured his cause.

NOTE 2.—In poetry, the additional *s* is frequently omitted, but the apostrophe retained, in the same manner as in nouns of the plural number ending in *s* as, 'The wrath of Peleus' son.' This seems not so allowable in prose; while the following erroneous examples will demonstrate; 'Moses' minister;' 'Phinehas' wife;' 'Jesus came into Felix' room.' 'These answers were made to the witness' questions.' But in cases, which would give too much of the hissing sound, or increase the difficulty of pronunciation, the omission takes place, even in prose; as, 'For righteousness' sake;' 'For conscience' sake.'

Exercises in False Syntax.—And he cast himself down at Jesus feet.—Moses' rod was turned into a serpent.—For Herodias' sake, his brother Philip's wife.—If ye suffer for righteousness' sake, happy are ye.—Ye should be subject for conscience's sake.

NOTE 3.—Little explanatory circumstances are particularly awkward between a possessive case and the word which usually follows it; as, 'She began to extol the farmer's, as she called him, excellent understanding.' It ought to be, 'the excellent understanding of the farmer, as she called him.'—The word the possessive case is frequently placed improperly; as, 'This fact appears from Dr. Pearson of Birmingham's experiments.' It should be, 'from the experiments of Dr. Pearson of Birmingham.'

Exercises in False Syntax.—They very justly condemned the prodigal's, as he was called senseless and extravagant conduct.—They implicitly obeyed the protector's, as they led him, imperious mandates.

NOTE 4.—When a sentence consists of terms signifying a name and a

daily make more use of the particle, *of*, to express the same relation. There is something awkward in the following sentences, in which this method has not been taken. 'The general, in the army's name, published a declaration — 'The commons' vote. The lord's house. Unless he is very ignorant of the kingdom's condition.' It were certainly better to say, 'In the name of the army; The votes of the commons: The house of lords; The condition of the kingdom.' It is also rather harsh to use two English possessives with the same noun; as, 'Whom he acquainted with the pope's and the king's pleasure. The pleasure of the pope and the king,' would have been better.

We sometimes meet with three nouns dependent on one another, and connected by the preposition, *of*, applied to each of them; as, 'The severity of the distress of the son of the king, touched the nation;' but this mode of expression is not to be recommended. It would be better to say, 'The severe distress of the king's son, touched the nation.' We have a striking instance of this laborious mode of expression, in the following sentence; '*Of some of the books of each of these classes of literature, a catalogue will be given at the end of the work.*'

Exercises in False Syntax.—The world's government is not left to chance.—She married my son's wife's brother.—This is my wife's brother's partner's house.—It was necessary to have both the physician's and the surgeon's advice.—The extent of the prerogative of the King of England is sufficiently ascertained.

NOTE 6.—In some cases, we use both the possessive termination and the preposition, *of*; as, 'It is a discovery of Sir Isaac Newton's.' Sometimes indeed, unless we throw the sentence into another form this method is absolutely necessary, in order to distinguish the sense, and to give the idea of property, strictly so called, which is the most important of the relations expressed by the possessive case; for the expressions, 'This picture of my friend,' and 'This picture of my friend's,' suggest very different ideas. The latter only is that of property in the strictest sense. The idea would, doubtless, be conveyed in a better manner, by saying, 'This picture belonging to my friend.'

When this double possessive, as some grammarians term it, is not necessary to distinguish the sense, and especially in a grave style, it is generally omitted.—Except to prevent ambiguity, it seems to be allowed only in cases, which suppose the existence of a plurality of subjects of the same kind. In the expressions, 'A subject of the emperor's; A sentiment of my brother's;' more than one subject, and one sentiment, are supposed to belong to the possessor. But when this plurality is neither intimated, nor necessarily supposed, the double possessive, except as before mentioned, should not be used; as, 'This house of the governor is very commodious; The crown of the king was stolen; That privilege of the scholar was never abused.' But after all, that can be said for this double possessive, as it is termed, some grammarians think that it would be better to avoid the use of it altogether, and to give the sentiment another form of expression.

Exercises in False Syntax.—The picture of the King's does not much resemble him.—These pictures of the King were sent to him from Italy.—This estate of the Corporation's is much encumbered. That is the eldest son of the King of England's.

NOTE 7.—When an entire clause of a sentence, beginning with a participle of the present tense, is used as one name, or to express one idea or circumstance, the noun, on which it depends, may be put in the possessive case; thus, instead of saying, 'What is the reason of this person dismissing his servant so hastily?' that is, 'What is the reason of this person in dismissing his servant so hastily?' we may say, and perhaps ought to say, 'What is the reason of this person's dismissing his servant so hastily?' Just as we say, 'What is the reason of this person's hasty dismissal of his servant?' So also, we say, 'I remember it being reckoned a great exploit;' or more properly, 'I remember its being

reckoned, &c.’ The following sentence is correct and proper; ‘Much will depend on the *pupil’s composing*, but more on *his reading* frequently.’ It would not be accurate to say, ‘Much will depend on the *pupil composing*.’ &c. We also properly say; ‘This will be the effect of the *pupil’s composing* frequently;’ instead of, ‘Of the *pupil composing* frequently.’ The participle, in such constructions, does the office of a noun, and should have a correspondent regimen.

Exercises in False Syntax.—What can be the cause of parliament neglecting so important business? Much depends on this rule being observed. The time of William making the experiment at length arrived. If we alter the situation of any of the words, we shall presently be sensible of the melody suffering. Such will ever be the effect of youth associating with vicious companions.

LECTURE V.—OF PRONOUNS.

RULE V.—When a noun or pronoun is the subject of a verb, it must be in the nominative case; as, “He walks; we run.”

Remarks.—Every nominative case, except the case absolute, and when an address is made to a person, should belong to some verb, either expressed or implied; as, ‘Who wrote this book?’ ‘James;’ that is, ‘James wrote it.’ ‘To whom thus Adam,’ that is, ‘spoke.’

One or two instances of the improper use of the nominative case, without any verb, expressed or implied, to answer it, may be sufficient to illustrate the usefulness of the preceding observation.

‘*Which rule*, if it had been observed a neighbouring prince would have wanted a great deal of that incense which hath been offered up to him’ The pronoun, *it*, is here the nominative case to the verb ‘observed;’ and *which rule* is left by itself, a nominative case without any verb following it. This form of expression, though improper, is very common. It ought to be, ‘*If this rule* had been observed.’ ‘*Man*, though he has great variety of thoughts, and such from which others as well as himself might receive profit and delight, yet they are all within his own breast.’ In this sentence, the nominative *man* stands alone and unconnected with any verb, either expressed or implied. It should be, ‘*Though man* has great variety,’ &c.

Exercises in False Syntax.—Two nouns, when they come together, and do not signify the same thing, the former must be in the possessive case.—Virtue, however it may be neglected for a time, men are so constituted as to acknowledge and respect genuine merit.

NOTE 1.—The relative pronoun is the subject of the verb, when no nominative comes between it and the verb; as, ‘The master *who* taught us;’ ‘The trees *which* are planted.’

When a nominative comes between the relative and the verb, the relative is governed by some word in its own member of the sentence; as ‘He *who* preserves me, to *whom* I owe my being, *whose* I am, and *whom* I serve, is eternal.”

In the several members of the last sentence, the relative performs a different office. In the first member, it marks the agent; in the second, it submits to the government of the preposition; in the third, it represents the possessor; and in the fourth, the object of an action; and therefore it must be in the three different cases, correspondent to those offices.

When both the antecedent and relative become nominatives, each to different verbs, the relative is the nominative to the former, and the antecedent to the latter verb; as, ‘*True philosophy*, *which* is the ornament of our nature, *consists* more in the love of our duty and the practice of virtue, than in great talents and extensive knowledge.’

A few instances of erroneous construction, will illustrate both branches

of this note. The three following refer to the first part. 'How can we avoid being grateful to those whom, by repeated kind offices, have proved themselves our real friends? These are the men whom, you might suppose, were the authors of the work;' 'If you were here, you would find three or four, whom you would say, passed their time agreeably;' in all these places it should be *whom* instead of *whom*. The two latter sentences contain a nominative between the relative and the verb; and, therefore, seem to contravene the rule; but the student will reflect, that it is not the nominative of the verb, with which the relative is connected. The remaining examples refer to the second part of the rule. 'Men of fine talents are not always the persons who we should esteem.' 'Persons who you dispute with, are precisely of your opinion.' 'Our tutors are our benefactors, who we owe obedience to, and who we ought to love.' In these sentences, *whom* should be used instead of *who*.

Exercises in False Syntax.—They, whom, in our youthful days, have laboured to make us wise and good, are the persons, who we ought to love and respect, and who we ought to be grateful to.—That is the student, who I gave the book to, and whom, I am persuaded deserves it.—The persons, who conscience and virtue support, may smile at the vicissitudes of fortune.

NOTE 2.—When the relative pronoun is of the interrogative kind, the noun or pronoun containing the answer, must be in the same case as that which contains the question; as, 'Whose books are these? They are John's.' 'Who gave them to him? He.' 'Of whom did you buy them? Of a bookseller; him who lives at the Bible and Crown.' 'Whom did you see there? Both him and the shopman.' The learner will readily comprehend this rule, by supplying the words which are understood in the answers. Thus, to express the answers more large, we should say, 'They are John's books.' 'We gave them to him.' 'I bought them of him who lives, &c.' 'We saw both him and the shopman.' The relative pronoun, when used interrogatively, refers to the subsequent word or phrase containing the answer to the question, that word or phrase may properly be termed the *subsequent* to the interrogative.

Exercises in False Syntax.—Of whom were the articles bought? Of a mercer; he, who resides near the mansion house.—Was any person, besides the mercer present? Yes, both him and his clerk.—Who was the money paid to? To the mercer and his clerk.—Who counted it? Both the clerk and him.

Remarks.—The nominative case is commonly placed before the verb; but sometimes it is put after the verb, if it is a simple tense; and between the auxiliary, and the verb or participle, if a compound tense; as,

1st, When a question is asked, a command given, or a wish expressed; 'Confidest thou in me? Read thou; Mayst thou be happy! Long live King!'

2d, When a supposition is made without the conjunction *if*; as, 'Were not for this; Had I been there.'

3d, When a verb intransitive is used; as, 'On a sudden appeared king.'

4th, When the verb is preceded by the adverbs, *here, there, then, thence, thus*, &c. as, 'Here am I; There was he slain; Then cometh the end. Thence ariseth his grief; Hence proceeds his anger; Thus was the affair settled; There needs no ghost come from the grave to tell us this.'

5th, When the sentence depends on *neither* or *nor*, so as to be coupled with another sentence; as, 'Ye shall not eat of it, neither shall ye touch it, lest die.'

RULE VI.—When an address is made, the noun or pronoun is in the nominative case independent; as, 'Adam, where thou? George, study your lesson.'

Remarks.—Nouns and pronouns, thus circumstanced, are said to be in the nominative case independent, because they stand independent on the rest of the sentence, and unconnected with it. Thus in the preceding examples, *Adam* and *George* are the names of the persons addressed; and they are mentioned merely to designate the persons, to whom the address is made. They do not stand as the nominatives to any verb; nor as connected with the words that follow them, either by government or agreement; and are therefore in the nominative case independent.

RULE IX.—Pronouns must agree with their antecedents, and the nouns for which they stand, in gender, number, and person; as, 'This is the friend, *whom* I love; That is the vice, *which* I hate; The moon appears, and *she* shines, but the light is not *her* own; I *who* speak from experience; Thou *who* lovest wisdom.'

Remarks.—Of this rule there are many violations to be met with; a few of which may be sufficient to put the learner on his guard. 'Each of the sexes should keep within its particular bounds, and content *themselves* with the advantages of *their* particular districts;' better thus; 'The sexes should keep within *their* particular bounds.' &c. 'Can any one, on *his* entrance into the world, be fully secure that they shall not be deceived? On *his* entrance,' and 'That *he* shall.' One should not think too favourably of ourselves; 'Of *one's* self.' He had one acquaintance which poisoned his principles; 'Who poisoned.'

Pronouns are sometimes made to precede the nouns which they represent; as, 'If a man declares in autumn, when he is eating *them*, or in the spring, when there are *none*, that he loves grapes, &c.' But this is a construction, which is seldom allowable.

When a pronoun stands for two or more nouns, connected by a copulative conjunction, it must be in the plural number; as, 'Socrates and Plato were wise, *they* were the most eminent philosophers in Greece.' But when the nouns are connected by a disjunctive conjunction, the pronoun must be in the singular number; as, 'A lampoon or a satire does not carry in it robbery or murder.'

Every relative must have an antecedent to which it refers, either expressed or implied; as, 'Who is fatal to others is so to himself;' that is, '*the man who* is fatal to others.'

Which and *what* appear to be sometimes used as adjective pronouns; as, 'I know not *what* impressions time may have made upon his person. We are at a loss *which* course to take.'

Who, *which*, *what*, and the relative *that* though in the objective case, are always placed before the verb; as are also their compounds, *whoever* *whosoever*, &c. as, 'He whom ye seek; This is what, or the thing which, or that you want; Whomsoever you please to appoint.'

What is sometimes applied, in a manner which appears to be exceptionable; as, 'All fevers, except what are called nervous,' &c. It would at least be better to say, 'except *those which* are called nervous.'

What is frequently used as the representative of two cases; one, the objective to a verb, or preposition, and the other, the nominative to a subsequent verb—and sometimes, the objective also to a subsequent verb or preposition; as, 'I heard *what* was said—I heard *what* he said; He related *what* was seen—He related *what* he saw; According to *what* was proposed—According to *what* they proposed; We do not constantly love *what* has done us good.'—This peculiar construction may be explained by resolving *what* into its principles, *that which*; as, 'I heard *that, which* was said—I heard *that, which* he said;' &c.

In a few instances, the relative is introduced, as the nominative to a verb, be-

are the same persons, who assisted us yesterday.—The men and things, which he has studied, have not improved his morals.

NOTE 4.—The pronouns *whichever*, *whosoever*, and the like, are elegantly divided by the interposition of the corresponding nouns; thus ‘On *whichever* side the king cast his eyes,’ would have sounded better, if written, ‘On *which* side *soever*,’ &c.

Exercises in False Syntax—Howsoever beautiful they appear, they have no real merit. In whatsoever light we view him, his conduct will bear inspection.—On *whichever* side they are contemplated, they appear to advantage. However much he might despise the maxims of the king’s administration, he kept a total silence on that subject.

NOTE 5.—Many persons are apt, in conversation, to put the objective case of the personal pronouns, in the place of *these* and *those*; as, ‘Give me *them* books;’ instead of ‘*those* books.’ We may sometimes find this fault even in writing; as, ‘Observe *them* three there.’ We also frequently meet with *them* instead of *they* at the beginning of a sentence, and where there is no particular reference to an antecedent; as, ‘*Those* that sow in tears, sometimes reap in joy.’ *They* that, or *they* who sow in tears.

It is not however, always easy to say whether a personal pronoun or a demonstrative is preferable, in certain constructions. ‘We are not unacquainted with the calumny of *them* [or *those*], who openly make use of the warmest professions.’

Exercises in False Syntax.—Which of *them* two persons has most distinguished himself? None more impatiently suffer injuries than *those*, that are most forward in doing them.—How beautiful *them* trees look!—We have a great many of *them* flowers in our garden.

NOTE 6.—In some dialects, the word *what* is improperly used for *that*, and sometimes we find it in this sense in writing; ‘They will never believe but *what* I have been entirely to blame. I am not satisfied but *what*,’ &c. instead of ‘but *that*.’ The word *somewhat*, in the following sentence, seems to be used improperly. ‘These punishments seem to have been exercised in somewhat an arbitrary manner.’ Sometimes we read, ‘In somewhat of.’ The meaning is, ‘in a manner which is in some respects arbitrary.’

Exercises in False Syntax.—He would not be persuaded but *what* I was greatly in fault. These commendations of his children appear to have been made in somewhat an injudicious manner.—He conducted himself on that occasion in somewhat of an arbitrary manner.

NOTE 7.—The relative pronoun *who*, is so much appropriated to persons, that there is generally harshness in the application of it, except to the proper names of persons, or the general terms *man*, *woman*, &c. A term which only implies the idea of persons, and expresses them by some circumstance or epithet, will hardly authorize the use of it; as, ‘That faction in England, *who* most powerfully opposed his arbitrary pretensions.’ ‘That faction *which*,’ would have been better; and the same remark will serve for the following examples; ‘France, *who* was in alliance with Sweden. The court, *who*,’ &c. ‘The cavalry *who*,’ &c. The cities *who* aspired at liberty. That party among us *who*,’ &c. ‘The family *whom* they consider as usurpers.’

In some cases it may be doubtful, whether this pronoun is properly applied or not; as, ‘The number of substantial inhabitants with *whom* some cities abound.’ For when a term directly and necessarily implies persons, it may in many cases claim the personal relative. ‘None of the company, *whom* he most affected, could cure him of the melancholy under which he laboured.’ The word *acquaintance* may have the same construction.

Exercises in False Syntax.—He instructed and fed the crows, *who* surrounded him.—Sidney was one of the wisest and most active governors, *which* Ireland has enjoyed for several years.—He was the ablest minister, *which* James ever possessed.—The court, *who*

gives currency to manners, ought to be exemplary.—I am happy in the friend, which I have long proved.

NOTE 8.—We hardly consider little children as persons, because that term gives us the idea of reason and reflection; and therefore the application of the personal relative, *who*, in this case, seems to be harsh; ‘A child *who*.’ *It*, though neuter, is generally applied, when we speak of an infant or child; as, *It* is a lovely infant; *It* is a healthy child.’ The personal relative is still more improperly applied to animals; ‘A lake frequented by that fowl, *whom* nature has taught to dip the wing in water.’

Exercises in False Syntax.—The child, whom we have just seen, is wholesomely fed, and not injured by bandages or clothing.—He is like a beast of prey, who destroys without pity.—The air was full of that kind of swallows, who build their nests in chimneys.

NOTE 9—When the name of a person is used merely as a name, and it does not refer to the person, the pronoun, *who*, ought not to be applied. ‘It is no wonder, if such a man did not shine at the court of queen Elizabeth, *who* was not another name for prudence and economy.’ Better thus; ‘whose name was but another word for prudence, &c.’ The word *whose* begins likewise to be restricted to persons; yet it is not done so generally, but that good writers, even in prose, use it when speaking of things. The construction is not, however, generally pleasing, as we may see in the following instances; ‘Pleasure, *whose* nature, &c. Call every production, *whose* parts and *whose* nature,’ &c.

In one case, however, custom authorizes us to use *which*, with respect to persons; and that is when we want to distinguish one of two persons, or a particular person among a number of others. We should say, ‘*Which* of the two, or *Which* of them is he or she?’

Exercises in False Syntax.—Having once disgusted him, he could never regain the favour of Nero, who was indeed another name for cruelty.—Flattery, whose nature is to deceive and betray, should be avoided as the poisonous adder.—Who of those men came to his assistance?

NOTE 10.—As the pronoun relative has no distinction of number, we sometimes find an ambiguity in the use of it; as when we say, ‘The disciples of Christ *whom* we imitate;’ we may mean the imitation either of Christ, or of his disciples. The accuracy and clearness of the sentence depend very much upon the proper and determinate use of the relative, so that it may readily present its antecedent to the mind of the hearer or reader, without any obscurity or ambiguity.

Exercises in False Syntax.—The king dismissed his minister without any inquiry; who had never before committed so unjust an action.—There are millions of people in the empire of China, whose support is derived almost entirely from rice.

NOTE 11.—*It* is and *it was* are often, after the manner of the French, used in a plural construction, and by some of our best writers; as, ‘*It* is either a few great men, who decide for the whole, or *it* is the rabble, that follow a seditious ringleader; *It* is they, that are the real authors, though the soldiers are the actors of the revolution; *It was* the heretics, that first began to rail, &c. *It is these*, that early taint the female mind.’ This license in the construction [*it is*, (if it be proper to admit it at all,) has, however, been certainly abused in the following sentence, which is thereby made a very awkward one. ‘*It* is wonderful the very few accidents, which, in several years, happen from this practice.’

Exercises in False Syntax.—It is remarkable his continual endeavours to serve us, notwithstanding our ingratitude.—It is indisputably true his assertion, though it is a paradox.

Remarks.—The neuter pronoun, by an idiom peculiar to the English language, is frequently joined in explanatory sentences, with a noun, or pronoun of masculine, or feminine gender; as, ‘It was I; It was the man or woman it did it.’

'The neuter pronoun, *it*, is sometimes omitted and understood ; thus we
'As appears, as follows ;' for 'As it appears, as it follows ; and 'May be
'It may be.'

The neuter pronoun, *it*, is sometimes employed to express ;

1st, The subject of any discourse or inquiry ; as, '*It* happened on a
mer's day ; Who is *it*, that calls on me ?'

2nd, The state or condition of any person or thing ; as, 'How is *it*
you ?'

3d, The thing whatever it be, that is the cause of any effect or event on
person considered merely as a cause ; as, 'We heard her say *it* was no
The truth is, *it* was I that helped her.'

RULE X.—A noun or pronoun, joined with a participle
standing independent on the rest of the sentence, is in
nominative case absolute ;—as, '*Shame being lost*, all virtue
lost ;' '*That having been discussed* long ago, there is no need
to resume it.'

Remarks.—This and rule VI are the only exceptions to the remarks
rule V. 'That every nominative case must have a verb, either expressed
understood.' When an address is made, the noun has no connexion with
with any verb ; and in the case absolute, the noun has no connexion with
personal tense of a verb, but only with a participle.

As in the use of the case absolute, the case is, in English, always the no
tive, the following example is erroneous, in making it the objective. '
moon was of this mind ; and I have no doubt he made as wise and true pro
as any body has done since ; *him* only excepted, who was a much greater
wiser man than Solomon.' It should be, '*he* only excepted.'

Exercises in False Syntax—Him, whom they justly called the Father of his co
being taken captive, the whole army surrendered at discretion.

—————Him destroyed,
Or won to what may work his utter loss,
All this will soon follow.

—————Whose gray top
Shall tremble, him descending.

RULE XIII.—Adjective pronouns must agree, in number
with the nouns, to which they belong ; as, 'This book, these
books ; that sort, these sorts.'

Remarks.—The *possessive* adjective pronouns, and perhaps some other
appear to be exceptions to this rule ; they are added to nouns without regard
number ;—as, 'Our life, our lives ; your house, your houses ; their estate
estates.'

A few instances of the breach of this rule are here exhibited. 'I have
travelled this twenty years ; *these* twenty. 'I am not recommending
kind of sufferings ; *this* kind. 'Those set of books was a valuable pro
that set.

Exercises in False Syntax—These kind of indulgences soften and injure the mind
stead of improving yourselves, you have been playing this two hours.—Those sort
vours did real injury, under the appearance of kindness.—He saw one or more
enter the garden.—He has lived here this twenty years.—The mail has been gone
three hours.—I do not like that kind of people.—I hate these sort of plays.

NOTE 1.—The word, *means*, in the singular number, and the phrase
this means, By that means, are used by our best and most correct writers

namely, Bacon, Tillotson, Atterbury, Addison, Steele, Pope, &c. They are indeed, in so general and approved use, that it would appear awkward, if not affected, to apply the old singular form, and say, 'By this *mean*; by that *mean*; it was by a *mean*;' although it is more agreeable to the general analogy of the language.

Good writers do indeed make use of the noun, *mean*, in the singular number, and in that number only, to signify mediocrity, middle state, &c. as, 'This is a *mean* between the two extremes.' But in the sense of instrumentality, it has long been disused by the best authors, and by almost every writer.

This means and *that means* should be used only when they refer to what is singular; *these means* and *those means*, when they respect plurals; as, 'He lived temperately, and by *this means* preserved his health. The scholars were attentive, industrious, and obedient to their tutors; and by *these means* acquired knowledge.'

Exercises in False Syntax.—Charles was extravagant, and by this *mean* became poor and despicable.—It was by that ungenerous *mean* that he obtained his end.—Industry is the *mean* of obtaining competency.—Though a promising measure, it is a *mean*, which I cannot adopt.—This person embraced every opportunity to display his talents; and by these *means* rendered himself ridiculous.—Joseph was industrious, frugal and discreet and by this *means* obtained property and reputation.

NOTE 2.—When two persons or things are spoken of in a sentence, and there is occasion to mention them again for the sake of distinction, *that* is used in reference to the former, and *this*, in reference to the latter; as, 'Self-love, which is the spring of action in the soul, is ruled by reason; but for *that*, man would be inactive; and but for *this*, he would be active to no end.'

Exercises in False Syntax.—Religion raises men above themselves; irreligion sinks them beneath the brutes; that binds them down to a poor pitiable speck of perishable earth; this opens for them a prospect to the skies.—More rain falls in the first two summer months, than in the first two winter ones; but it makes a much greater show upon the earth in those than in these; because there is a much slower evaporation. Rex and Tyrannus are of very different characters. The one rules his people by laws, to which they consent; the other, by his absolute will and power;—this is called freedom,—that, tyranny.

NOTE 3.—The distributive adjective pronouns, *each*, *every*, *either*, agree with the nouns, pronouns, and verbs, of the singular number only; as, 'The king of Israel, and Jehoshaphat, the king of Judah, sat *each* on his throne; *Every* tree is known by its fruit;' unless the plural noun convey a collective idea; as, 'Every six months; *Every* hundred years.' The following phrases are exceptionable. 'Let *each* esteem others better than themselves;' it ought to be '*himself*.' 'The language should be both perspicuous and correct; in proportion as *either* of these two qualities are wanting, the language is imperfect;' it should be, '*is wanting*.' '*Every* one of these letters bear regular dates, and contain proofs of attachment;' '*bears a regular date, and contains*.' '*Every* town and village were burned; *every* grove and *every* tree were cut down;' '*was burned, and was cut down*.' See the lecture on verbs, rule XV. note 4.

Either is often used improperly, instead of *each*; as, 'The kin. of Israel, and Jehoshaphat, the king of Judah, sat *either* of them on his throne; Nadab and Abihu, the sons of Aaron, took *either* of them his censer.' *Each* signifies both of them taken distinctly or separately; *either* properly signifies only the one or the other of them taken disjunctively.

Exercises in False Syntax.—Each of them, in their turn, receive the benefits to which they are entitled.—My counsel to each of you is, that you should make it your endeavour to come to a friendly agreement.—By discussing what relates to each particular, in their order, we shall better understand the subject.—Every person, whatever be their station, are bound by the duties of morality and religion.—Every leaf, every twig, every drop of water, teem with life.—Neither of those men seem to have any idea that their opinions may be ill-founded.—When benignity and gentleness reign within, we are always least in hazard from without; every person and every occurrence are beheld in the most favourable light.—On either side of the river, was the tree of life.

LECTURE VI.—OF VERBS.

SECTION 1.—Of the Agreement of Verbs.

RULE VII.—A verb must agree with its nominative case in number and person ; as, ‘ I learn ; thou art improved ; the birds sing.’

Remarks—The following are a few instances of the violation of this rule. ‘ What signifies good opinions, when our practice is bad ? What signify. There’s two or three of us, who have seen the work ; There *are*. We may suppose there was more impostors than one ; There *were* more. I have considered what have been said on both sides in this controversy ; What *has* been said. If thou would be healthy, live temperately ; If thou *wouldst*. Thou sees how little has been done ; Thou *seest*. Though thou cannot do much for the cause, thou may and should do something ; *Canst not, mayst, and shouldst*. Full many a flower are born to blush unseen ; *Is* born. A conformity of inclinations and qualities prepare us for friendship ; *Prepares* us. A variety of blessings have been conferred upon us ; *Has* been. In piety and virtue consist the happiness of man ; *Consists*. To these precepts are subjoined a copious selection of rules and maxims ; *Is* subjoined.’

In the use of the verbs, *dare* and *need*, when not immediately followed by an objective case, some writers omit the personal termination of those verbs ; as, ‘ He *dare* not do it,’ instead of, ‘ He *dares* not do it ; He *need* not be afraid,’ instead of, ‘ He *needs* not be afraid.’ But this practice is clearly a violation of one of the plainest rules of Syntax ; and, therefore, should not be imitated.

Exercises in False Syntax—Disappointments sinks the heart of man ; but the renewal of hope give consolation.—The smiles that encourage severity of judgment, hides malice and insincerity.—He dare not act contrary to his instructions.—Fifty pounds of wheat contains forty pounds of flour.—The mechanism of clocks and watches were totally unknown a few centuries ago.—The number of inhabitants in Great Britain and Ireland do not exceed sixteen millions.—Nothing but vain and foolish pursuits delight some persons.—A variety of pleasing objects charm the eye.—So much both of ability and merit are seldom found.—In the conduct of Parmenio, a mixture of wisdom and folly were very conspicuous.—The inquisitive and curious is generally talkative.—Great pains has been taken to reconcile the parties.—I am sorry to say it, but there was more equivocators than one.—The sincere is always esteemed.—There is many occasions in life, in which silence and simplicity is true wisdom.

In vain our flocks and fields increase our store,
When our abundance make us wish for more.

He need not proceed in such haste.—The generous never recounts minutely the actions they have done ; nor the prudent, those they will do.—In him were happily blended true dignity with softness of manners.—The support of so many of his relations were a heavy tax upon his industry ; but thou knows he paid it cheerfully.—That liberty is the birth-right of man, need not be laboured in this assembly.—What avails the best sentiments, if persons do not live suitably to them.—Reconciliation was offered on terms as moderate, as was consistent with a permanent union.—Not one of them, whom thou sees clothed in purple, are completely happy.—And the same of this person, and of his wonderful actions, were diffused throughout the country.—The variety of the productions of genius, like that of the operations of nature, are without limit.—Thou, who art he Author and Bestower of life, can doubtless restore it also ; but whether thou will please to restore it, or not, thou only knows.

O thou my voice inspire,
Who touch’d Isaiah’s hallowed lips with fire.

Accept these grateful tears ; for thee they flow,
For thee that ever felt another’s wo.

NOTE 1.—Every verb, except in the infinitive mood, or the participle, ought to have a nominative case, either expressed or implied ; as, ‘ Awake ;’ that is, ‘ Awake ye ; arise ye.’ A late writer on grammar observes, that ‘ in the use of the verb, *need*, there

is a peculiar irregularity, the verb being without any nominative, expressed or implied; as, 'Whereof there *needs* no account; There is no evidence of it in fact, and there *needs* none.'—That 'this is an established use of *need*' is true; but the verb is certainly not without its nominative. In the first example, *a count* is the nominative; and in the last, *none*, (standing for *no evidence*.)—When *here, there, &c.* precede the verb, the nominative case follows it. (See Remarks under Rule V.) *Need*, in the above and similar instances, has a *passive* signification, meaning *to be wanted, to be necessary, &c.* as, 'Whereof the *needs* no account; Whereof no account *needs*,' that is, *is wanted, is necessary, &c.*

We shall here add some examples of inaccuracy, in the use of the verb without its nominative case. 'As it hath pleased him of his goodness to give you safe deliverance, and hath preserved you in the great danger,' &c. The verb '*hath preserved*,' has here no nominative case, for it cannot be properly supplied by the preceding word, *him*, which is in the objective case. It ought to be, 'and as *he hath preserved* you;' or rather, 'and *to preserve* you.' 'If it calm, in which he was born, and lasted so long, had continued; And *which* lasted' &c. 'These we have extracted from an historian of undoubted credit, and are the same that were practised,' &c. 'and *they are* the same.' 'A man whose inclinations led him to be corrupt, and had great abilities to manage the business; And *who* had,' &c. 'A cloud gathering in the north; which *we* have helped to raise, and may quickly break in a storm upon our heads; An *which* may quickly.'

Exercises in False Syntax.—If the privileges, to which he has an undoubted right, *he* has long enjoyed, should now be wrested from him, would be flagrant injustice.—The curiosities we have imported from China, and are similar to those, which were sometime ago brought from Africa.

Will martial flames forever fire thy mind,
And never, never be to Heaven resign'd.

NOTE 2.—When a verb comes between two nouns, either of which may be understood as the subject of the affirmation, it may agree with either of them; but some regard must be had to that, which is more naturally the subject of *as* also to that, which stands next to the verb; as, 'His meat *was* locusts as wild honey; A great cause of the low state of industry *were* the restraints put upon it; The wages of sin is death.'

Exercises in False Syntax.—The crown of virtue is peace and honour.—His chief occupation and enjoyment were controversy.—Their principal food were vegetables.

RULE XV.—A verb, agreeing with two or more nouns or pronouns singular, connected by a *copulative* conjunction, must be in the *plural* number; as, 'John *and* James *were* present.' 'He *and* she *were* here.' [See post, Note 4.]

Remarks.—This rule is extended to include nouns and pronouns, similarly situated; as, 'Socrates and Plato were wise; *they* were the most eminent philosophers of Greece.'

This rule is often violated; some instances of which are annexed. 'As *so* was also James and John the sons of Zebedee, who were partners with *mon*;' 'and *so were* also.' 'All joy, tranquillity, and peace, even for ever *doth dwell*;' '*dwell forever*.' 'By whose power all good and evil is distributed;' '*are distributed*.' 'Their love, and their hatred, and their envy, now perished;' '*are perished*.' 'The thoughtless and intemperate enjoyment of pleasure, the criminal abuse of it, and the forgetfulness of our being accountable creatures, obliterates every serious thought of the proper business of life, and faces the sense of religion and of God.' It ought to be, '*obliterate and efface*'

Exercises in False Syntax.—Illness and ignorance is the parent of many vices.—*unity* consists in the welfare and security of every society.—Time and tide waits for no man.

His politeness and good disposition was, on failure of their effect, entirely changed.—Humility and knowledge, with poor apparel, excels pride and ignorance under costly attire. The planetary system, boundless space, and the immense ocean affects the mind with sensations of astonishment.—Humility and love, whatever obscurities may involve religious tenets, constitutes the essence of true religion.—Religion and virtue, our best support and highest honour, confers on the mind principles of noble independence.—What signifies the counsel and care of preceptors, when youth think they have no need of assistance?

NOTE 1.—When the nouns are nearly related, or scarcely distinguishable in sense, and sometimes even when they are very different, some authors have thought it allowable to put the verbs, nouns, and pronouns, in the singular number; as, ‘Tranquillity and peace dwells here; Ignorance and negligence has produced the effect; The discomfiture and slaughter was very great.’ But it is evidently contrary to the first principles of grammar, to consider two distinct ideas as one, however nice may be their shades of difference; and if there be no difference, one of them must be superfluous, and ought to be rejected.

Exercises in False Syntax.—Much does human pride and self-complacency require correction.—Luxurious living, and high pleasures, begets a languor and satiety, that destroys all enjoyment.—Pride and self-sufficiency stifles sentiments of dependence on our Creator; levity and attachment to worldly pleasures destroys the sense of gratitude to him.

NOTE 2.—In many complex sentences, it is difficult for learners to determine, whether one or more of the clauses are to be considered as the nominative case; and consequently, whether the verb should be in the singular or the plural number. We shall, therefore, set down a number of varied examples of this nature, which may serve as some government to the scholar, with respect to sentences of a similar construction. ‘Prosperity, with humility, *renders* its possessor truly amiable. The ship, with all her furniture, *was* destroyed. Not only his estate, but his reputation too *has* suffered by his misconduct. The general also, in conjunction with the officers, *has* applied for redress. He cannot be justified; for it is true, that the prince, as well as the people, *was* blameworthy. The king, with his life guard, *has* just passed thro’ the village. In the mutual influence of body and soul, there *is* a wisdom, a wonderful wisdom, which we cannot fathom. Virtue, honour, nay, even self-interest, *conspire* to recommend the measure. Patriotism, morality, every public and private consideration *demand* our submission to just and lawful government. Nothing *delights* us so much as the works of nature.’

Exercises in False Syntax.—Good order in our affairs, not mean savings, produce good profits.—The following treatise, together with those that accompany it, were written many years ago, for my own private satisfaction.—The great senator in concert with several other eminent persons were the projectors of the revolution.—The religion of these people, as well as their customs and manners, were strangely misrepresentative.—Virtue, joined to knowledge and wealth, confer great influence and respectability.—But knowledge with wealth united, if virtue is wanting, have a very limited influence, and are often despised. One, added to nineteen, make twenty.

What black despair, what horror fills his mind!

NOTE 3.—If the singular nouns and pronouns, which are joined together by a copulative conjunction, be of several persons, in making the plural pronoun agree with them in person, the second person takes place of the third, and the first of both; as, ‘James, and thou, and I, *are* attached to *our* country. Thou and he shared it between *you*.’

Exercises in False Syntax.—Thou, and the gardener, and the huntsman must share the blame of this business amongst them.—My sister and I, as well as my brother, are daily employed in their respective occupations.

NOTE 4.—When the pronoun, *every*, is added to nouns, connected by a copulative conjunction, it forms an important exception to Rule XV. For, whatever number of nouns, with the pronoun, *every*, may be connected by a conjunction, this pronoun is as applicable to the whole mass of them, as to any of the nouns; and therefore the verb is correctly put in the singular number,

and refers to the whole separately and individually considered. In short, this pronoun so entirely coalesces with the nouns, however numerous and united, that it imparts its peculiar nature to them, and makes the whole number correspond together, and require a similar construction. The subject may be farther illustrated and confirmed by the following examples. 'Every man, woman, and child *was* preserved from the devouring element. Every good gift, and every perfect gift, *is* from above, and *cometh* down from the Father of light;' James i. 17. 'It is the original cause of every reproach and distress, which *has* attended the government.' Junius. 'To those, that have lived long together, every thing heard, and every thing seen recalls some pleasure communicated, or some benefit conferred; some petty quarrel, or some slight endearment.' Dr. Johnson.—This construction forms one exception to Rule XV.—Another exception to that rule is when a copulative conjunction connects two or more nouns, which refer to the same person or thing; as, 'That able scholar and critic *has* been eminently useful to the cause of religion.'

Exercises in False Syntax.—Every leaf, every twig, every drop of water teem with life, Every man and every woman were numbered.—When benignity and gentleness reign within, we are always least in hazard from without; every person and every occurrence are beheld in the most favourable light.—That learned barrister and eloquent pleader have great influence both with the court and jury.—That superficial scholar and critic, like some renowned critics of our own, have furnished most decisive proofs, that they knew not the characters of the Hebrew language.

RULE XVI.—A verb, agreeing with two or more nouns or pronouns, singular, connected by a *disjunctive* conjunction, must be in the *singular* number; as, 'John, James, *or* Joseph *intends* to accompany me.'

Remarks.—The conjunction disjunctive has an effect contrary to that of the conjunction copulative. Two or more nouns, &c. connected by the latter, are to be taken *together* as forming a *plurality* of subjects; but when connected by the disjunctive, they are considered *separately*, and the verb, noun, or pronoun, referring to them, must be in the singular number.

The following sentences are variations from this rule; 'A man may see a metaphor or an allegory in a picture, as well as read them in a description; read *it*. Neither character nor dialogue were yet understood; *was* yet. It must indeed be confessed, that a lampoon or a satire do not carry in them robbery or murder; *does* not carry in *it*. Death, or some worse misfortune, soon dividé them.' It ought to be '*divides*.'

Exercises in False Syntax.—Man's happiness or misery are, in a great measure, put into his own hands.—Man is not such a machine as a clock, or a watch, which move merely as they are moved.—Despise no infirmity of mind or body, nor any condition of life; for perhaps they are to be your own lot.—Speaking impatiently to servants, or any thing, that betrays unkindness or ill humor, are certainly criminal.—There are many faults in spelling which neither analogy, nor pronunciation justify.—When sickness, infirmity, or reverse of fortune affect us, the sincerity of friendship is proved.—Let it be remembered, that it is not the hearing, or the uttering of certain words, that constitute the worship of the Almighty.—A tart reply, a proneness to rebuke, or a captious and contradicting spirit are capable of imbittering domestic life, and of setting friends at variance.

NOTE 1.—When singular pronouns, or a noun and pronoun, of different persons, are disjunctively connected, the verb must agree with that person which is placed nearest to it; as, 'I or thou *art* to blame; Thou or I *am* in fault; I, or thou, or he, *is* the author of it; George or I *am* the person.' But it would be better to say; 'Either I am to blame, or thou art,' &c.

Exercises in False Syntax.—Either thou, or I, art greatly mistaken in our judgment on this subject.—I, or thou am the person, who must undertake the business proposed.

NOTE 2.—When a disjunctive occurs between a singular noun, or pronoun,

and a plural one, the verb is made to agree with the plural noun and pronoun ; as, " Neither poverty, nor riches *were* injurious to him ; I, or they *were* offended by it." But in this case, the plural noun or pronoun, when it can conveniently be done, should be placed next to the verb.

Exercise in False Syntax.—Both of the scholars, or one of them at least, was present at the transaction.—Some parts of the ship and cargo were recovered ; but neither the sailors nor the captain, was saved.—Whether one or more was concerned in the business does not yet appear.—The cares of this life, or the deceitfulness of riches, has choked the seeds of virtue in many a promising mind.

NOTE 3.—A verb or pronoun, agreeing with a noun of multitude, may be either in the singular or plural number ; yet not without regard to the import of the noun, as conveying unity or plurality of idea ; as, ' The meeting *was* large ; The assembly *is* dissolved ; The nation *is* powerful ; My people *do* not consider. *th y* have not known me ; The multitude eagerly *pursue* pleasure, as *their* chief good ; The council *were* divided in *their* sentiments.'

We ought to consider whether the term will immediately suggest the idea of the number it represents, or whether it exhibits to the mind the idea of the whole as one thing. In the former case, the verb ought to be plural ; in the latter, it ought to be singular. Thus, it seems improper to say, ' The peasantry *goes* barefoot, and the middle sort *makes* use of wooden shoes.' It would be better to say, ' The peasantry *go* barefoot, and the middle sort *make* use,' &c. because the idea in both these cases, is that of a number. On the contrary, there is a harshness in the following sentences, in which nouns of number have verbs plural ; because the ideas they represent seem not to be sufficiently divided in the mind. ' The court of Rome *were* not without solicitude. The use of commons *were* of small weight. The house of lords *were* so much influenced by these reasons. Stephen's party *were* entirely broken up by the captivity of their leader. An army of twenty-four thousand *were* assembled. What reason *have* the church of Rome for proceeding in this manner ? There is no constitution so tame and careless of *their* own defence. All the virtues of mankind are to be counted upon a few fingers, but *his* follies and vices are innumerable.' Is not *mankind* in this place a noun of multitude, and such as requires the pronoun referring to it to be in the plural number, *their* ?

When a noun of multitude is preceded by a definitive word, which clearly limits the sense to an aggregate with an idea of unity, the verb and pronoun, agreeing with it, must be in the singular number ; as, ' A company of troops *was* detached ; a troop of cavalry *was* raised ; *this* people *is* become a great nation ; *that* assembly *was* numerous ; a great number of men and women *was* collected.'

Exercise in False Syntax.—The people rejoices in that which should give it sorrow. The flock, and not the fleeces, are or ought to be the objects of the shepherd's care.—The court have just ended, after having sat through the trial of a very long cause.—The crowd were so great that the judges with difficulty made their way through them.—The corporation of York consist of a mayor, aldermen, and common council.—The British parliament are composed of king, lords, and commons.—When the nation complains, the rulers should listen to their voice.—In the days of youth, the multitude eagerly pursues pleasure as its chief good.—The church have no power to inflict corporal punishment.—The fleet were seen sailing up the channel.—The regiment consist of a thousand men.—The meeting have established several salutary regulations.—The council was not unanimous, and it separated without coming to any determination.—The fleet is all arrived and moored in safety.—This people draweth near to me with their mouth, and honoureth me with their lips, but their heart is far from me.—The committee were very full when this point was decided, and their judgment has not been called in question.—Why do this generation wish for greater evidence, when so much is already given ?—The remnant of the people were persecuted with great severity.—Never were any people so much infatuated as the Jewish nation.—The shoal of herrings were of an immense extent.—No society are chargeable with the disapproved misconduct of particular members.

RULE XVIII.—The infinitive mood, or part of a sentence,

is sometimes used as the nominative case to a verb; as, '*To see the sun* is pleasant; *To be good* is to be happy; *A desire to excel others in learning and virtue* is commendable; *Promising without due consideration* often produces a breach of promise; *To be temperate in eating and drinking, to use exercise in the open air, and to preserve the mind free from tumultuous emotions* are the best preservatives of health.'

Remarks.—These sentences, or clauses, thus constituting the subject of an affirmation, may be termed *nominative sentences*. When the several clauses stand as distinct subjects, they constitute a plurality of nominatives, and consequently require the verb to be in the plural number; as in the last of the preceding examples. But when these nominative sentences form but one subject, or convey an idea of unity, the verb must be in the singular number; as, '*That virtue will be rewarded and vice punished* is a doctrine plainly taught in the Bible.'

Exercises in False Syntax.—To do unto all men, as we would that they, in similar circumstances, should do unto us, constitute the great principles of virtue.—From a fear of the world's censure, to be ashamed of the practice of precepts, which the heart approves and embraces, mark a feeble and imperfect character.—To live soberly, righteously, and piously are required of all men.—That it is our duty to promote the purity of our minds and bodies, to be just and kind to our fellow creatures, and to be pious and faithful to Him, that made us, admit not of any doubt in a rational and well informed mind.—To be of a pure and humble mind, to exercise benevolence towards others, and to cultivate piety towards God, is the sure means of becoming peaceful and happy.

SECTION 2.—Government of Verbs.

RULE VIII.—Active-transitive verbs govern the objective case; as, '*Truth ennobles her*; *She comforts me*; *They support us*.'

Remarks.—In English, the nominative case, denoting the subject, usually goes before the verb; and the objective case, denoting the object, follows the verb; and it is the order that determines the case in *nouns*; as, '*Alexander conquered the Persians*.' But the *pronoun* having a proper form for each of those cases, is sometimes, when it is in the objective case placed before the verb; and, when, it is in the nominative case, follows the object and verb; as, '*Whom ye ignorantly worship, him declare I unto you*.'

This position of the pronoun sometimes occasions its proper case and government to be neglected; as in the following instances;—'*Who should I esteem more than the wise and good*? By the character of those who you choose for your friends, your own is likely to be formed. Those are the persons who he thought true to his interests. Who should I see, the other day, but my old friend? Whosoever the court favours.' In all these places, it ought to be *whom*, the relative being governed in the objective case by the verbs, '*esteem, choose, thought*' &c. '*He, who under all proper circumstances, has the boldness to speak truth, choose for thy friend*;' It should be '*him who*,' &c.

Intransitive verbs do not act upon, or govern, nouns and pronouns. '*He sleeps*; *they muse*,' &c. are not transitive. They are, therefore, not followed by an objective case, specifying the object of an action. But when this case, or an object of action, comes after such verbs, though it may carry the appearance of being governed by them, it is affected by a preposition or some other word understood; as, '*He resided many years* (that is, *for* or *during* many years) *in that street*; *He rode several miles* (that is, *for* or *through* the space of several miles) *on that day*; *He lay an hour* (that is, *during* an hour) *in great torture*.' In the phrases, '*To dream a dream*; *to live a virtuous life*; *to run a*

This irregularity extends only to active and neuter verbs ; for all the above mentioned verbs, when made passive, require the sign, *to*, before the following verb ; as, 'He was seen *to go* ; He was heard *to speak* in his own defence ; They were bidden *to be* upon their guard,' &c. In the *past* and *future* tenses of the active voice also, these verbs generally require the sign, *to*, to be prefixed to the following verbs ; as, 'You *have dared to proceed* without authority ; They *will not dare to attack* you.'

Dare, signifying *to defy or challenge*,—and see, signifying *to take care*, require the usual prefix before the following verbs ; as, 'He *dares me to enter* the list ; I will see *to have* it done.'

In the following passages, the word *to*, the sign of the infinitive mood, where it is distinguished by Italic characters, is superfluous and improper. 'I have observed some satirists *to use*,' &c. 'To see so many *to make* so little conscience of so great a sin. It cannot but be a delightful spectacle to God and angels, to see a young person, besieged by powerful temptations on every side, *to acquit* himself gloriously, and resolutely to hold out against the most violent assaults ; to behold one in the prime and flower of his age, that is courted by pleasures and honours, by the devil, and all the bewitching vanities of the world, *to reject* all these, and *to cleave* steadfastly unto God.'

This mood has also been improperly used in the following places ;—'I am not like other men, *to envy* the talents I cannot reach. Grammarians have denied, or at least doubted, them *to be* genuine. That all our doings may be ordered by thy governance, *to do* always what is righteous in thy sight.'

Exercises in False Syntax.—It is better live on a little, than outlive a great deal. You ought not walk too hastily.—I wish him not wrestle with his happiness.—I need not to solicit him to do a kind action.—I dare not to proceed so hastily, lest I should give offence.—I have seen some young persons to conduct themselves very discreetly.—It is a great support to virtue, when we see a good mind to maintain its patience and tranquillity, under injuries and afflictions, and to cordially forgive its oppressors.—It is the difference of their conduct which makes us to approve the one and to reject the other. To see young persons, who are courted by health and pleasure, to resist all the allurements of vice, and to steadily pursue virtue and knowledge, is cheering and delightful to every good mind.—They acted with so much reserve, that some persons doubted them to be sincere.

Remarks.—The infinitive mood sometimes follows the word, *as* ; thus, 'An object so high *as to be* invisible ; A question so obscure *as to perplex* the understanding.' It also occasionally follows *than*, after a comparison ; as, 'He desired nothing more, *than to know* his own imperfections.'

The word, *for*, signifying *in order*, was anciently used before verbs in the infinitive mood ; as, 'What went ye out *for to see*?' But this usage is, now, nearly obsolete.

The infinitive mood has much of the nature of a noun, expressing the action itself which the verb signifies, as the participle has the nature of an adjective. Thus the infinitive mood does the office of a noun in the different cases ; in the nominative ; as, 'To *play* is pleasant ;' in the objective ; as, 'Boys love to *play* ; For *to will* is present with me ; but *to perform* that, which is good, I find not.'

RULE XX.—The infinitive mood is often made absolute, or used independently on the rest of the sentence ; as, 'To *confess* the truth, I was in fault ; To *begin* with the first ; To *proceed* ; To *conclude*,' &c.

Remarks.—The infinitive, in such instances, appears to supply the place of the conjunction, *that*, with the potential mood ; as, 'That I may confess,' &c.

RULE XXII.—Neuter and active-intransitive verbs have the same case *after* as *before* them ; as, 'I am *he*, whom ye

seek ; They at first took *him* to be *her* ; *Hortensius* died a martyr ; *He* went out captain.'

Remarks.—It is evident that the verb *to be*, through all its variations, requires the same case after it, as that which next precedes it ;—‘ I am *he* whom they invited ; *It* may be (or might have been) *he*, but *it* cannot be (or could not have been) *I* ; *It* is impossible to be *they* ; *It* seems to have been *he*, who conducted himself so wisely ; *It* appeared to be *she* that transacted the business ; *I* understood *it* to be *him* ; *I* believe *it* to have been *them* ; *We* at first took *it* to be *her* ; but were afterwards convinced that *it* was not *she*. *He* is not the person, *who* it seemed he was. *He* is really the person, *who* he appeared to be. *She* is not now the woman, *whom* they represented *her* to have been. *Whom* do you fancy *him* to be ?’ By these examples, it appears that this substantive verb has no government of case, but serves in all its forms, as a conductor to the cases ; so that the two cases, which, in the construction of the sentence, are the next before and after it, must always be alike. Perhaps this subject will be more intelligible to the learner, by observing that the words in the cases preceding and following the verb *to be*, may be said to be in *opposition* to each other. Thus, in the sentence, ‘ I understood *it* to be *him*,’ the words *it* and *him* are in opposition ; that is, ‘ they refer to the same thing and are in the same case.’

The following sentences contain deviations from the rule, and exhibit the pronoun in a wrong case ;—‘ It might have been *him*, but there is no proof of it ; Though *I* was blamed, it could not have been *me* ; I saw one whom I took to be *she* ; *She* is the person *who* I understood *it* to have been ; *Who* do you think *me* to be ? *Whom* do men say that I am ? And *whom* think ye that I am ?’

In the last examples, the natural arrangement is. ‘ Ye think that I am whom,’ where, contrary to the rule, the nominative, *I*, precedes, and the objective case, *whom*, follows the verb. The best method of discovering the proper case of the pronoun, in such phrases as the preceding, is to turn them into declarative expressions, and to substitute the antecedent for the pronoun, as the pronoun must be in the same case as the antecedent would be, if substituted for it. Thus, the question, ‘ Whom do men say that I am ?’ if turned into a declarative sentence, with the antecedent, would be, ‘ Men do say that I am *he* ;’ consequently the relative must be in the same case as *he* ; that is, the nominative, *who*, and not *whom*. In the same manner, in the phrase, ‘ *Who* should I see but my old friend ?’ if we turn it into a declarative one ; as, ‘ I should see *him*, my old friend,’ we shall perceive that the relative is governed by the verb ; as, *him* and *my friend* are in the objective case, and that the relative ought to be in the same case ; that is, *whom*, and not *who*.

When the verb, *to be*, is understood, it has the same case before and after it, as when it is expressed ; as, ‘ *He* seems the leader of his party ; *He* shall continue steward ; They appointed *me* executor ; I supposed *him* a man of learning ;’ that is, ‘ *He* seems to be the leader of his party,’ &c.

Exercises in False Syntax.—Well may you be afraid ; it is *him* indeed.—I would not act the same part, if I were *him*, or in his situation.—Search the scriptures ; for in them ye think ye have eternal life ; and they are them which testify of me.—Be composed ; it is *me* ; you have no cause for fear.—I cannot tell who has befriended me, unless it is *him*, from whom I have received many benefits.—I know not whether it were *them*, who conducted the business ; but I am certain it was not *him*.—He so much resembled my brother, that, at first sight, I took *it* to be *he*.—After all their professions, is it possible to be *them* ?—It could not have been *her*, for she always behaves discreetly.—If it was not *him*, who do you imagine *it* to have been ?—Who do you think *him* to be ?—Whom do the people say that we are ?

Remarks.—It is evident, that certain other neuter verbs, besides the verb, *to be*, require the same case, whether it be the nominative, or objective, before and after them ; as, ‘ *Hortensius* died a martyr ; The gentle *Sidney* lived the shepherd’s friend ; And *Swift* expires a driver and a shorn ; This conduct made *him* appear an encourager of every virtue.’

It is likewise evident, that active-intransitive verbs sometimes require the same construction. The verbs, *to become, to wander, to go, to return, to roam, to grow*, and several others are of this nature ; as, ‘ After this event, *he* became physician to the king ; *She* wanders an outcast ; He forced *her* to wander an outcast ; He went out *mate*, but *he* returned captain.’

“ Tom struts a soldier, open, bold, and brave ;

“ Will sneaks a servicer, an exceeding knave.”

All the examples under this rule, and all others of a similar construction, may be explained on the principle, that nouns and pronouns are in the same case, when they signify the same thing, the one merely describing, or elucidating the other.

NOTE 1.—The intransitive verb is varied like the transitive ; but, having in some degree the nature of the passive, it admits, in many instances, of the passive form, retaining still the intransitive signification, chiefly in such verbs as signify some sort of motion, or change of place or condition ; as, ‘ I am come ; I was gone ; I am grown ; I was fallen.’ The following examples, however, appear to be erroneous, in giving the intransitive verbs a passive form, instead of an active one. ‘ The rule of our holy religion, from which we *are* infinitely swerved. The whole obligation of that law and covenant *was* also *ceased*. Whose number was now *amounted* to three hundred. This mareschal, upon some discontent, *was entered* into a conspiracy against his master. At the end of a campaign, when half the men *are deserted* or killed.’ It should be, ‘ *have* swerved, *had* ceased,’ &c.

Exercises in False Syntax.—The mighty rivals are now at length agreed.—The influence of his corrupt example was then entirely *ceased*.—He *was entered* into the connexion, before the consequences were considered.

RULE XXIV.—Passive verbs, which signify *naming*, and others of a similar nature, have the same case after, as before them ; as, ‘ He *was named* John ; He *has been appointed* tutor.’

Remarks.—This rule is founded on the same principle, as Rule XXII.—Both the noun, which precedes, and the noun, which follows the passive verb, refer to the same person or thing ; as, ‘ He *was called* *Cæsar* ; *Homer* is styled the prince of poets ; He caused *himself* to be proclaimed king.’

We sometimes meet with such expressions, as these ;—‘ He was asked a question ; They were offered a pardon ; He had been left a great estate by his father.’ In these phrases, passive verbs are made to govern the objective case. This license is not to be approved. The expressions should be ; ‘ A question was put to him ; A pardon was offered to them ; His father left him a great estate.’

SECTION 3.—Syntax of the Moods.

Indicative Mood.—The indicative must be used after conjunctions, that are of a positive and absolute nature ; as, ‘ He is healthy, *because* he is temperate ; *as* virtue advances, *so* vice recedes.’

Subjunctive Mood.—After conjunctions, implying doubt or contingency, the subjunctive mood, either in the indicative or in the varied form, must be used ; as, ‘ *Though* he *is* learned, he is not pedantic ; He will not be pardoned, *unless* he *repent* ; He will be punished, *if* he *transgress* the law.’

The conjunctions, *if, though, unless, &c.* are generally followed by the conjunctive, or varied form ; as, ‘ *If* thou *be* afflicted, repine not ; *Though* he *slay* me, yet will I trust in him ; He cannot be clean, *unless* he *wash* himself.’ But even these conjunctions frequently admit of the indicative termination ; as, ‘ *If* he *is* poor, he is contented ; *Though* he *exceeds* her in knowledge, she far *exceeds* him in virtue.’

1.—*Lest*, and *that*, annexed to a command preceding, necessarily require the varied form of the subjunctive mood; as, 'Love not sleep, *lest* thou come to poverty; Reprove not a scorner, *lest* he hate thee; Take heed *that* thou speak not to Jacob.'

If with *but* following it, when futurity is denoted, requires the same form; as, 'If he *do but* touch the hills, they shall smoke; If he *be but* discreet, he will succeed.' But the indicative termination ought to be used, on this occasion, when future time is not signified; as, 'If, in this expression, he *does but* just, no offence should be taken; If he *is but* sincere, I am happy.' The same distinction applies to the following forms of expression;—'If he *do* submit, it will be from necessity; Though he *does* submit, he is not convinced; If thou *do* not reward this service, he will be discouraged; If thou *dost* heartily forgive him, endeavour to forget the offence.'

Exercises in False Syntax.—Despise not any condition, *lest* it happens to be your own. Let him, that is sanguine, take heed *lest* he miscarries.—Take care that thou breakest not any of the established rules.—If he does but intimate his desire, it will be sufficient to produce obedience.—At the time of his return, if he is *but* expert in the business, he will find employment.—If he do but speak to display his abilities, he is unworthy of attention.—If he be *but* in health, I am content.—If he does promise, he will certainly perform.—Though he do praise her, it is only for her beauty.—If thou *dost* not forgive, perhaps thou wilt not be forgiven.—If thou do sincerely believe the truths of religion, act accordingly.

2.—In the following instances, the conjunction *that*, expressed or understood, seems to be improperly accompanied with the varied termination of the subjunctive mood. 'So much she dreaded his tyranny, *that* the fate of her friend she *dare* not lament. 'He reasoned so artfully that his friends would listen, and think (*that*) he *were* not wrong.'

Exercises in False Syntax.—His confused behaviour made it reasonable to suppose, that he were guilty.—He is so conscious of deserving the rebuke, that he *dare* not make any reply.—His apology was so plausible, that many befriended him, and thought he were innocent.

3.—But the same conjunction governing both the indicative and the conjunctive terminations of the subjunctive mood, in the same sentence, and in the same circumstances, seems to be a great impropriety; as in these instances. 'If there *be but* one body of legislators, it is no better than a tyranny; if there *are* only two, there will want a casting voice. If a man *have* a hundred sheep, and one of them is gone astray,' &c.

Exercises in False Syntax.—If one man prefer a life of industry, it is because he has an idea of comfort in wealth; if another prefers a life of gaiety, it is from a like idea of pleasure.—No one engages in that business, unless he aim at reputation, or hopes for some singular advantage.—Though the design be laudable, and is favourable to our interest, it will involve much anxiety and labour.

4.—Almost all the irregularities in the construction of any language, have arisen from the ellipsis of some words, which were originally inserted in the sentence, and made it regular; and it is probable that this has been generally the case with respect to the conjunctive form of verbs, now in use; which will appear from the following examples. 'We shall overtake him, though he *run*;' that is, 'though he *should run*; Unless he *act* prudently, he will not accomplish his purpose;' that is, 'unless he *shall act* prudently.' 'If he *succeed*, and obtain his end, he will not be the happier for it;' that is, 'if he *should succeed*, and *should* obtain his end.'

From the preceding remarks and examples, it appears, that the varied form, or what grammarians call the present tense of the subjunctive mood, has a future signification; and that we may deduce therefrom the following Rule.

* That it is proper to adopt the conjunctive or varied form of the subjunctive mood, when these two circumstances concur;—1st, When the subject is of a du-

bious and contingent nature ; and 2d, When the verb has a reference to future time.

In the following sentences, both these circumstances will be found to unite. 'If thou *injure* another, thou wilt hurt thyself; He has a hard heart; and if he *continue* impenitent, he must suffer; He will maintain his principles, though he *lose* his estate; Whether he *succeed*, or not, his intention is laudable; If he *be* not prosperous, he will not repine; If a man *smite* his servant, and he *die*, &c. In all these examples, the things, signified by the verbs, are uncertain, and refer to future time. But in the instances, which follow, future time is not referred to; and therefore, a different construction takes place. 'If thou *livest* virtuously, thou art happy; Unless he *means* what he says, he is doubly faithless; If he *allows* the excellence of virtue, he does not regard her precepts; If thou *believest* with all thy heart, thou mayst, &c. Though he *seems* to be simple and artless, he has deceived us; Whether virtue is better than rank, or wealth, admits not of any dispute.'

It appears, from the tenor of the examples adduced, that the rule abovementioned may be extended to assert,

That in cases wherein contingency and futurity do not concur, it is not proper to turn the verb from its signification of present time, nor to vary its form or termination—or, in other words, That when future time is not referred to, the varied form of this tense must not be used. The verb should then be in the indicative form, whatever conjunctions may attend it.

If these rules, which seem to form the true distinction between the indicative and the conjunctive terminations of the subjunctive mood, were adopted and established in practice, we should have, on this point, a principle of decision simple and precise, and readily applicable to every case, that might occur.

Exercises in False Syntax—If he acquires riches, they will corrupt his mind, and be useless to other.—Though he urges me yet more earnestly, I shall not comply, unless he advances more forcible reasons.—I shall walk into the fields to day, unless it rains.—Thoust be high, he hath respect to the lowly.—Whether he improve or not, I cannot determine.—Though the fact be extraordinary, it certainly did happen.—Unless he learns faster, he will be no scholar.—Though he falls, he shall not be utterly cast down.—On condition that he comes, I will consent to stay.—If virtue rewards us not so soon as we desire, the payment will be made with interest.—However that affair terminates, my conduct will be unimpeachable.—Till repentance composes his mind, he will be a stranger to peace.—Whether he confesses or not, the truth will certainly be discovered.—If thou censurst uncharitably, thou wilt be entitled to no favour.—If thou censure uncharitably, thou deservest no favour.—If Charlotte desire to gain esteem and love, she does not employ the proper means.—Unless the accountant deceive me, my estate is considerably improved.—Though at times the ascent to the temple of virtue appears steep and craggy, be not discouraged.—Persevere until thou gainest the summit; there, all is order, beauty, and pleasure.—Though self-government produce some uneasiness, it is light, when compared with the pain of vicious indulgence.—Whether he think as he speaks, time will discover.—Though virtue appear severe, she is truly amiable.—Though success be very doubtful, it is proper that he endeavours to succeed.

5.—The second person singular of the imperfect tense, in the subjunctive mood, is also very frequently varied in its termination; as, 'If thou *loved* him truly, thou wouldst obey him; Though thou *did* perform, thou hast gained nothing by it.' This variation, however, appears to be improper. Our present version of the Scriptures, to which we refer, as a good grammatical authority in points of this nature, decides against it. 'If thou *knewest* the gift,' &c. *John* iv. 10. 'If thou *didst* receive, why dost thou glory?' &c. 1. *Cor.* iv. 7. See also *Dan.* v. 22. But it must be remembered, that the verb, *be*, and *passive* verbs, in certain constructions, are very properly varied from the indicative form, in the imperfect tense of the subjunctive mood; as, 'If he *were* here, I should be happy; I should feel grateful indeed, if I *were* now in health; She would not be vain, though she *were* admired; If he *were* treated with kindness, he would not be ungrateful; *Were* I in his situation, I might conduct no better.'

From an examination of these and similar examples, it appears, 1st. That the verb, in the varied form of the imperfect tense, refers to present time; as, 'If he were here,' that is, 'If he were *now* here;' so, 'If I were *now* in health;'—2d. That it has a negative signification, implying the *absence* of the passion or being denoted by the verb; thus, 'If she were beautiful, she would have many admirers,' implies that, 'she is not beautiful;' and 'If I were in health,' implies that 'I am not in health;'—and 3d. That it is uniformly attended by another verb in the imperfect tense of the potential mood; as, 'I would assist you, if I were able;' 'If he were here, he could inform us.' And these three circumstances, it is believed, will be found to concur, in all instances where this form of the verb is properly used. Hence it may be assumed, as a general Rule,

*That the varied form of the imperfect tense, subjunctive, must be used only when a reference is made to PRESENT time; and that the verb has then a negative signification, and must be preceded or followed by another verb, in the imperfect tense of the potential mood.**

When no reference is made to present time, the indicative form should be used; as, 'If he *was* here, I did not see him; If she *was* handsome then, she is ugly enough now; Though she *was* admired, yet she was not vain; If I *was* treated with kindness, I have not been ungrateful.'

Exercises in False Syntax.—If thou gave liberally, thou wilt receive a liberal reward. Though thou did injure him, he harbours no resentment.—It would be well, if the report was only the misrepresentation of her enemies.—Was he ever so great and opulent, this conduct would debase him.—Was I to enumerate all her virtues, it would look like flattery.—Though I was perfect, yet would I not presume.—Unless thou fought bravely, thou wilt certainly be censured.—Was she here, she would enjoy the scene.—Though she was admired, she would not be vain.—If she was rich, she would be admired.—It is not known, whether he were present or not.—If he were present, I did not see him.

6.—On the form of the auxiliaries in the compound tenses of the subjunctive mood, it seems proper to make a few observations. Some writers express themselves in the perfect tense as follows; 'If thou *have* determined, we must submit; Unless he *have* consented, the writing will be void;' but we believe that few authors of critical sagacity write in this manner. The proper form seems to be, 'If thou *hast* determined; unless he *has* consented,' &c. conformably to what we generally meet with in the Bible;—'I have surnamed thee, though thou *hast* not known me.' *Isaiah* xlv. 4. 5. 'What is the hope of the hypocrite, though he *hath* gained,' &c. *Job*. xxvii. 8. See also *Acts* xxviii. 4.

Exercises in False Syntax.—If thou have promised, be faithful to thy engagement. Though he have proved his right to submission, he is too generous to exact it.—Unless he have improved, he is not fit for the office.—What shall it profit him, if he have gained the whole world?

7.—In the pluperfect and future tenses, we sometimes meet with such expressions as these; 'If thou *had* applied thyself diligently, thou wouldst have reaped the advantage; Unless thou *shall* speak the whole truth, we cannot determine; If thou *will* undertake the business, there is little doubt of success.' This mode of expressing the auxiliaries does not appear to be warranted by the general practice of correct writers. They should be *hadst*, *shall*, and *will*; and we find them used in this form, in the sacred Scriptures.

'If thou *hadst* known,' &c. *Luke* xix. 47. 'If thou *hadst* been here,' &c. *John* xi. 21. 'If thou *wilt*, thou canst make me clean,' *Matt*. viii. 2. See also, *2 Sam*. ii. 27. *Matt*. xvii. 4.

Exercises in False Syntax.—If thou had succeeded, perhaps thou wouldst not be the happier for it.—Unless thou shall see the propriety of the measure, we shall not desire thy support.—Though thou will not acknowledge, thou canst not deny the fact.—Whether thou had been guilty, or innocent, thou shouldst not have been angry.—If thou will, thou mayst go.

* When this form of the verb, *be*, is used before the infinitive mood, it has a signification of futurity; as, 'If I *were* to go; if thou *wert* to go; if he *were* to go.'

Potential Mood.—The conjunction, *that*, is frequently followed by the potential mood ; as, 'I study, *that I may improve* ; Thieves rise by night, *that they may cut men's throats* ; Thou buildest the walls, *that thou mayst be their king* ; He knows, *that I would not hurt him*.'

It may not be superfluous, also, to observe, that the auxiliaries of the potential mood, when applied to the subjunctive, do not change the termination of the second person singular. We properly say, 'If thou *mayst or canst go* ; Though thou *mightst live* ; Unless thou *couldst read* ; If thou *wouldst learn* ;' and not 'If thou *may or can go*,' &c.

Exercises in False Syntax.—If thou may share his labours, be thankful and do it cheerfully.—Unless thou can fairly support the cause, give it up honourably.—Though thou might have foreseen the danger, thou couldst not have avoided it.—If thou could convince him, he would not act accordingly.—If thou would improve in knowledge, be diligent.—Unless thou should make a timely retreat, the danger will be unavoidable. I have laboured and wearied myself, that thou may be at ease.—He enlarged on those dangers, that thou should avoid them.

SECTION 4.—Syntax of the Tenses.

1. In the use of words and phrases which, in point of time, relate to each other, a due regard to that relation should be observed.

Instead of saying, 'The Lord *hath given*, and the Lord *hath taken away* ; we should say, 'The Lord *gave*, and the Lord *hath taken away*. Instead of, 'I *remember* the family more than twenty years ;' it should be, 'I *have remembered* the family more than twenty years.'

It is not easy, in all cases, to give particular rules for the management of the tenses and of words and phrases, which relate to one another in point of time, so that they may be proper and consistent. The best rule, that can be given, is this very general one, *To observe what the sense necessarily requires*. It may however, be of use to exhibit a number of instances, in which the construction is irregular. The following are of this nature.

'I have completed the work more than a week ago ; I have seen the coronation at Westminster last summer.' These sentences should have been ; 'I *completed* the work,' &c. 'I *saw* the coronation,' &c. because the perfect tense extends to a past period, which immediately precedes, or includes the present time ; and it cannot, therefore, apply to the time of *a week ago*, or to *last summer*.

'Charles has lately finished the reading of Henry's History of England ;' it should be, 'Charles *lately finished*,' &c.—the word, *lately*, referring to a time completely past, and not including the present time.

'They have resided in Italy, till a few months ago, for the benefit of their health ;' it should be, 'They *resided* in Italy,' &c.

'This mode of expression has been formerly much admired ;' it ought to be, '*was* formerly much admired,' &c.

'The business is not done here in the manner, in which it has been done, some years since, in Germany ;' it should be, 'in the manner, in which it *was* done,' &c.

'I will pay the vows, which my lips have uttered, when I was in trouble ;' it ought to be, 'which my lips *uttered*,' &c.

'I have in my youth, trifled with health, and old age now prematurely assails me ;' it should be, 'In my youth I *trifled* with health,' &c.

To preserve consistency in the time of verbs, and of words and phrases, we must recollect that, in the subjunctive mood, the present and the imperfect tenses often carry with them a future sense ; and that the auxiliaries, *should* and *would*, in the imperfect time, are used to express the present and future, as well as the past. See *Etymology, Lecture 6, Sec. 3, Remarks on the Future Tenses*.

Exercises in False Syntax.--The next new-year's day, I shall be at school three years. And he, that was dead, sat up, and began to speak.--I should be obliged to him, if he will gratify me in that particular.--And the multitude wondered, when they saw the dumb to speak, the maimed to be whole, the lame walk, and the blind seeing.--I have compassion on the multitude, because they continue with me now two or three days.--In the treasury, belonging to the Cathedral in this city, is preserved with the greatest veneration, for upwards of six hundred years, a dish, which they pretend to be made of emerald.--The court of Rome gladly laid hold on the opportunities, which the imprudence, weakness, or necessities of princes afford it, to extend its authority.

Fierce as he mov'd, his silver shafts resound.

They maintained that scripture conclusion, that all mankind rise from one head.--Jobs will earn his wages, when his service is completed.--Ye will not come unto me, that ye might have life.--Be that as it will, he cannot justify his conduct.--I have been at London a year, and seen the king last summer.--After we visited London, we returned, content and thankful, to our retired and peaceful habitation.

2. With regard to verbs in the infinitive mood, the practice of many writers, and some even of our most respectable writers, appears to be erroneous. They seem not to advert to the true principles, which influence the different tenses of this mood. We shall produce some rules on this subject, which, we presume, will be found perspicuous and accurate.

All verbs, expressive of HOPE, DESIRE, INTENTION, or COMMAND, must invariably be followed by the PRESENT, and NOT the PERFECT of the infinitive.

'The last week, I intended *to have written*,' is a very common phrase; the infinitive mood being in the past tense, as well as the verb, which it follows. But it is evidently wrong;—for how long soever it now is, since I thought of writing, 'to write,' was then present to me; and must still be considered as present, when I bring back that time, and the thoughts of it. It ought, therefore, to be; 'The last week, I intended *to write*.'

The following sentence is properly and analogically expressed;—'I found him better, than I expected to find him.' 'Expected *to have found*,' is irreconcilable to grammar, and to sense. Every person would perceive an error in this expression; 'It is long since I commanded him *to have done* it;' yet, 'expected *to have found*,' is not better. It is as clear, that the *finding* must be posterior to the expectation, as that the *obedience* must be posterior to the command.

As the verbs, *to desire* and *to wish*, are nearly related, the young student may naturally suppose, from the rule just laid down, that the latter verb, like the former, must invariably be followed by the present of the infinitive. But if he reflect, that the act of *desiring* refers always to the future, and that the act of *wishing* refers sometimes to the past, as well as sometimes to the future; he will perceive the distinction between them, and that, consequently, the following modes of expression are strictly justifiable; 'I wished *that I had written* sooner; I wished *to have written* sooner;' and he will be perfectly satisfied, that the following phrases must be improper; 'I desire *that I had written* sooner; I desire *to have written* sooner.'

Having considered and explained the special rule, respecting the government of verbs expressive of hope, desire, intention, or command, we proceed to state and elucidate the general rule, on the subject of verbs in the infinitive mood. It is founded on the authority of Harris, Lowth, Campbell, Pickbourn, &c. and we think too, on the authority of reason and common sense.

When the action or event signified by a verb in the infinitive mood, is CONTEMPORARY or FUTURE, with respect to the verb to which it is chiefly related the PRESENT of the infinitive is required; when it is NOT contemporaneous NOR future, the PERFECT of the infinitive is necessary.

To comprehend and apply this rule, the student has only to consider, whether the infinitive verb refers to a time antecedent, contemporaneous, or future, with regard to the governing or related verb. When this simple point is ascertained there will be no doubt, in his mind, respecting the form, which the infinitive,

verb should have. A few examples may illustrate these positions: If I wish to signify, that I rejoiced, at a particular time, in recollecting the sight of a friend, some time having intervened between the *seeing* and the *rejoicing*, I should express myself thus; 'I rejoiced *to have seen* my friend.' The *seeing* in this case, was evidently antecedent to the *rejoicing*; and therefore the verb, which expresses the former, must be in the perfect of the infinitive mood. The same meaning may be expressed in a different form; as, 'I rejoiced *that I had seen* my friend;' or, '*in having seen* my friend;'—and the student may, in general, try the propriety of a doubtful point of this nature, by converting the phrase into these two correspondent forms of expression. When it is convertible into both these equivalent phrases, its legitimacy must be admitted.—If, on the contrary, I wish to signify that I rejoiced at the sight of my friend, that my joy and his presence were contemporary, I should say, 'I rejoiced *to see* my friend;' or, in other words, 'I rejoiced *in seeing* my friend.' The correctness of this form of the infinitive mood may also, in most cases, be tried by converting the phrase into other phrases of a similar import.

The subject may be still further illustrated by additional examples. In the sentence, which follows, the verb is, with propriety, put in the perfect tense of the infinitive mood; It would have afforded me great pleasure, as often as I reflected upon it, *to have been* the messenger of such intelligence.' As the message, in this instance, was antecedent to the pleasure, and not contemporary with it, the verb, expressive of the message, must denote that antecedence, by being in the perfect of the infinitive. If, on the contrary, the message and the pleasure were referred to as contemporary, the subsequent verb would, with equal propriety, have been put in the present of the infinitive; as, 'It would have afforded me great pleasure *to be* the messenger of such intelligence.' In the former instance, the phrase in question is equivalent to these words; '*If I had been* the messenger;' in the latter instance, to this expression; '*Being* the messenger.'

It is proper to inform the learner, that, in order to express the past time with the defective verb, *ought*, the perfect of the infinitive must always be used; as, 'He *ought to have done* it.' When we use this verb, this is the only possible way to distinguish the past from the present.

In relating things, that were formerly expressed by another person, we often meet with modes of expression similar to the following.

'The travellers, who lately came from the south of England, said that the harvest there *was* very abundant. I met Charles yesterday, who told me, that he *is* very unhappy. The professor asserted, that a resolute adherence to truth *is* an indispensable duty. The preacher said very audibly, that whatever *was* useful *was* good.'

In referring to declarations of this nature, the present tense must be used, if the position is immutably the same at all times, or supposed to be so; as, 'The bishop declared, that virtue *is* always advantageous;' not, '*was* always advantageous.' But if the assertion referred to something, that is not always the same, or supposed to be so, the past tense must be applied; as, 'George said that he *was* very happy;' not, '*is* very happy.'

Exercises in False Syntax—I purpose to go to London in a few months, and, after I shall finish my business there, to proceed to America.—From the little conversation I had with him, he appeared to have been a man of letters.—I always intended to have rewarded my son according to his merit.—It would, on reflection, have given me great satisfaction to relieve him from that distressed situation.—It required so much care, that I thought I should have lost it, before I reached home. We have done no more, than it was our duty to have done.—He would have assisted one of his friends, if he could do it without injuring the other; but as that could not have been done, he avoided all interference. Must it not be expected, that he would have defended an authority, which had been so long exercised without controversy?—These enemies of christianity were confounded, while they were expecting to have found an opportunity to have betrayed its author.

His sea-sickness was so great, that I often feared he would have died before our arrival. If these persons had intended to deceive, they would have taken care to have avoided what would expose them to the objections of their opponents.---It was a pleasure to have received his approbation of my labours ; for which I cordially thanked him.---It would have afforded me still greater pleasure to receive his approbation at an earlier period ; but to receive it at all reflected credit upon me.--To be censured by him would soon have proved an insupportable discouragement.

Him portion'd maids, apprentic'd orphans blest,
The young who labour, and the old who rest.

The doctor, in his lecture, said, that fever always produced thirst.---The court decided, that the law is unconstitutional.---The philosopher asserted, that truth never changed, but was always the same.

SECTION 5.—Syntax of Participles.

RULE XI.—Participles agree, like adjectives, with the nouns or pronouns, to which they refer ; as, '*Jesus knowing* their thoughts rebuked them ; I saw *him labouring* in the field.'

Remarks.—The present participle is frequently used without an obvious reference to any noun, or pronoun ; as, '*Granting* this to be true, what is to be inferred from it ? Generally *speaking*, his conduct was honourable. It is scarcely possible to act otherwise, *considering* the frailty of human nature.' In these sentences, there is no noun expressed or directly implied, to which *speaking*, *granting*, and *considering* can be referred. The most natural construction seems to be, that a pronoun is to be understood ; as, '*We considering* the frailty of human nature ; *I granting* this,' &c.

This participle, also, sometimes appears to agree with a sentence, or part of a sentence ; as, '*According* to the Bible, *the disciples of our Lord were poor illiterate fishermen ; We worship God according* to the dictates of our own consciences.' But some grammarians consider the phrase, *according to*, as a preposition, equivalent to the Latin, *secundum*.

The participles of neuter and passive verbs have sometimes the same case after as before them,—according to Rules XXII. and XXIV. ; as, '*Herod being tetrarch* of Galilee ; *Washington being elected President* of the United States ; *Cataline, having been declared a traitor*, rushed out of the Senate.'

RULE XII.—Participles have the same government, as the verbs, from which they are derived ; as, '*Jesus, knowing* their thoughts, rebuked them ; *Suspecting them*, he studiously avoided all intercourse.'

Remarks.—Participles are frequently used as nouns, sometimes in the nominative and sometimes in the objective case ; as, '*Taking* from another what is his, without his knowledge or consent, is called stealing ; By the mind's *changing* the object, to which it compares any thing ; Such a plan is not capable of *being carried* into execution ; He was displeased with the king's *having disposed* of the office, or with his *having bestowed* it upon a worthless man.'

Participles are also, sometimes used both as verbs and as nouns, at the same time ; as, '*By the mind's changing* the object,' &c. where '*changing*' is used as a noun in the objective case, governed by the preposition '*by*,' according to Rule XXI.—as a noun, it also governs the noun, '*mind's*,' in the possessive case, according to Rule IV. ; and, as a verb, it governs the noun, '*object*,' in the objective case, according to the above Rule XII.

Exercises in False Syntax.—Esteeming themselves wise, they became fools.---Suspecting not only ye, but they also, I was studious to avoid all intercourse.---I could not avoid considering, in some degree, they as enemies to me ; and he as a suspicious friend.---From having exposed himself too freely in different climates, he entirely lost his health.---Believing she, who called her name Amanda, to be a spy, he ordered her to be imprisoned.

NOTE 1.—The present participle, with the definite article, *the*, before it, becomes a noun, and must have the preposition, *of*, after it; as, ‘These are the rules of grammar, by *the* observing *of* which, you may avoid mistakes.’ It would not be proper to say, ‘by the observing which;’ nor, ‘by observing of which;’ but the phrase, without either article or preposition, would be right; as, ‘by observing which.’ The indefinite article, *a* or *an*, has the same effect; as, ‘This was a betraying of the trust reposed in him.’

The following are a few examples of the violation of this rule. ‘He was sent to prepare the way by preaching of repentance;’ it ought to be, ‘by *the* preaching of repentance;’ or ‘by preaching repentance. By the continual mortifying our corrupt affections; it should be, ‘by the continual mortifying *of*,’ or, ‘by continually mortifying our corrupt affections.’ ‘They laid out themselves towards *the* advancing and promoting the good of it; towards advancing and promoting the good. It is *an* overvaluing ourselves, to reduce every thing to the narrow measure of our capacities; it is an overvaluing *of* ourselves.—Keeping of one day in seven,’ &c. it ought to be, ‘*the* keeping *of* one day;’ or, ‘keeping one day.’

Exercises in False Syntax.—By observing of truth, you will command esteem, as well as secure peace.—He prepared them for this event, by the sending to them proper information.—A person may be great or rich by chance; but cannot be wise or good without the taking pains for it.—Nothing could have made her so unhappy as the marrying a man, who possessed such principles.—The middle station of life seems to be the most advantageously situated for gaining of wisdom.—Poverty turns our thoughts too much upon the supplying our wants; and riches upon the enjoying our superfluities.—Propriety of pronunciation is the giving to every word that sound, which the most polite usage of the language appropriates to it.—The not attending to this rule is the cause of a very common error.—This was in fact a converting the deposits to his own use.

NOTE 2.—As the perfect participle and the imperfect tense are sometimes different in their form, care must be taken that they be not indiscriminately used. It is frequently said, ‘He begun,’ for ‘he began;’ ‘he run,’ for ‘he ran;’ ‘he drunk,’ for ‘he drank;’ the participles being here used instead of the imperfect tense; and much more frequently the imperfect tense instead of the participle; as, ‘I had wrote,’ for ‘I had written;’ ‘I was chose,’ for ‘I was chosen;’ ‘I have eat,’ for ‘I have eaten.’ ‘His words were interwove with sighs; were *interwoven*. He would have spoke; *spoken*. He hath bore witness to his faithful servants; *borne*. By this means he overrun his guide; *over-ran*. The sun has rose; *risen*. His constitution has been greatly shook, but his mind is too strong to be shook by such causes; *shaken*.’ in both places. ‘They were verses wrote on glass; *written*. Philosophers have often mistook the source of true happiness;’ it ought to be, ‘*mistaken*.’

The participle, ending in *ed*, is often improperly contracted by changing *ed* into *t*; as, ‘In good behaviour, he is not *surpast* by any pupil of the school. She was much *distrest*.’ They ought to be ‘*surpassed*, *distressed*.’

Exercises in False Syntax.—By too eager pursuit, he ran a great risk of being disappointed.—He had not long enjoyed repose, before he begun to be weary of having nothing to do.—He was greatly heated, and drunk with avidity.—Though his conduct was, in some respects, exceptionable, yet he dared not commit so great an offence as that, which was proposed to him.

A second deluge learning thus o’er-run;

And the Monks finish’d what the Goths began.

If some events had not fell out very unexpectedly, I should have been present.—He would have went with us, had he been invited.—He returned the goods, which he stole, and made all the reparation in his power.—They have chose the part of honour and virtue.—His vices have weakened his mind, and broke his health.—He had mistook his true interest, and found himself forsook by his former adherents.—The bread, that has been eat, is soon forgot.—No contentions have arose amongst them since their reconciliation.—The cloth had no seam, but was wove throughout.—The French language is spoke in every state in Europe.—His resolution was too strong to be shook by slight opposition. He was not much restrained afterwards, having took improper liberties at first.—He has

not yet wore off the rough manners, which he brought with him.—You, who have ~~lost~~ ^{lost} your friends, are entitled to no confidence.—They, who have bore a part in the ~~loss~~ ^{loss}, will share the rewards. When the rules have been wantonly broke, there can be ~~no~~ ^{no} plea for favour.—He writes as the best of authors would have wrote, had they writ ~~on~~ ^{on} the same subject.—He heapt up great riches, but past his time miserably.—He talk~~s~~ ^s and stamp with such violence, that he was suspected of being insane.

LECTURE VII.—OF CONJUNCTIONS.

RULE XIV.—Conjunctions connect the same cases of nouns and pronouns ; and generally the same moods and tenses of verbs ; as, 'Candour is *to be approved and practised* ; If thou sincerely *desire*, and earnestly *pursue* virtue, she *will* assuredly *be found* by thee, *and prove* a rich reward ; 'The master taught *her and me* to write ; *He and she* were school fellows.' *

A few examples of inaccuracy respecting this rule may further display its utility. 'To deride the miseries of the unhappy, is inhuman ; and wanting compassion towards them, is unchristian ; and *to want* compassion. 'The parliament addressed the king, and has been prorogued the same day ; and *was* prorogued. His wealth and him bid adieu to each other ; and *he*. He entreated us, my comrade and I, to live harmoniously ; comrade and *me*. My sister and her were on good terms ; and *she*. We often overlook the blessings which are in our possession, and are searching after those which are out of our reach ; ' it ought to be ; ' and *search* after.'

Exercises in False Syntax.—Professing regard, and to act differently, discover a base mind.—Did he not tell me his fault, and intreated me to forgive him -- My brother and him are tolerable grammarians.—You and us enjoy many privileges.—She and him are very unhappily connected.—To be moderate in our views, and proceeding temperately, is the best way to ensure our success.—Between him and I there is some disparity of years ; but none between him and she.—By forming themselves on fantastic models, and ready to vie with one another in the reigning follies, the young begin with being ridiculous, and end with being vicious and immoral.

NOTE 1.—Conjunctions are, indeed, frequently made to connect different moods and tenses of verbs ; but in these instances the nominative must generally, if not always, be repeated, which is not necessary, though it may be done, under the construction to which the rule refers. We may say, 'He *lives* temperately, *and he* should live temperately ; He *may return*, but he *will not continue* here ; She *was* proud, though she *is* now humble ;' but it is obvious, that in such cases, the nominative ought to be repeated ; and that by this means, the latter members of these sentences are rendered not so strictly dependent on the preceding, as those are which come under the rule. When, in the progress of a sentence, we pass from the affirmative to the negative form, or from the negative to the affirmative, the subject or nominative is always resumed ; as, 'He is rich, but he is not respectable. He is not rich, but he is respectable.' There appears to be in general, equal reason for repeating the nominative, and resuming the subject, when the course of the sentence is diverted by a change of the mood or tense. The following sentences may therefore be improved. 'Anger glances into the breast of a wise man, but will rest only in the bosom of fools ;' but *rests* only ; or, 'but *it will* rest only. Virtue is praised by many, and would be desired also, if her worth were really known ; and *she* would. The world begins to recede, and will soon disappear ; and *it will*.'

Exercises in False Syntax.—We have met with many disappointments ; and, if life continue, shall probably meet with many more.—Rank may confer influence, but will not neces-

* This rule refers only to nouns and pronouns, which have the same bearing or relation with regard to other parts of the sentence.

ally produce virtue.—He does not want courage, but is defective in sensibility.—These people have indeed acquired great riches, but do not command esteem.—Our season of improvement is short; and, whether used or not, will soon pass away.—He might have been happy, and is now fully convinced of it.—Learning strengthens the mind; and, if properly applied, will improve our morals too.

NOTE 2.—Some conjunctions have their corresponding conjunctions belonging to them, either expressed or understood; so that, in the subsequent member of the sentence, the latter answers to the former; as,

1st, *Though—yet, nevertheless*; as, ‘*Though* he was rich, *yet* for our sakes he became poor. *Though* powerful, he was meek.’

2d, *Whether—or*; as, ‘*Whether* he will go or not, I cannot tell.’

3d, *Either—or*; as, ‘I will *either* send it, or bring it myself.’

4th, *Neither—nor*; as, ‘*Neither* thou *nor* I am able to compass it.’

5th, *As—as*; expressing a comparison of equality; as, ‘She is *as* amiable as her sister.’

6th, *As—so*; expressing a comparison of equality; as, ‘*As* the stars, *so* shall thy seed be.’

7th, *As—so*; expressing a comparison of quality or manner; as, ‘*As* the me dieth, *so* dieth the other.’

8th, *So—as*; with a verb expressing a comparison of quality; as, ‘To see by glory, *so as* I have seen thee in the sanctuary.’

9th, *So—as*; with a negative and an adjective expressing a comparison of quality; as, ‘Pompey was not *so* great a general *as* Cæsar.’

10th, *So—that*; expressing a consequence; as, ‘He was *so* fatigued, *that* he could scarcely move.’

Exercises in False Syntax.—Neither the cold, or the fervid, but characters uniformly warm are formed for friendship.—They are both praiseworthy, and one is equally deserving as the other.—He is not as diligent and learned as his brother.—I will present it to him myself, or direct it to be given to him.—Neither despise or oppose what you do not understand.—The house is not as commodious as we expected it would be.—I must, however, be so candid to own I have been mistaken.—There was something so amiable and yet so piercing in his look, as affected me at once with love and terror.

————— I gain’d a son;
And such a son, as all men hailed me happy.

The dog in the manger would not eat the hay himself, nor suffer the ox to eat it.—As far as I am able to judge, the book is well written.—We should faithfully perform the trust committed to us, or ingenuously relinquish the charge.—He is not as eminent and as much esteemed, as he thinks himself to be.—The work is a dull performance; and is neither capable of pleasing the understanding, or the imagination.—There is no condition so secure as cannot admit of change.—This is an event, which no body presumes upon, or is so unwise to hope for.—We are generally pleased with any little accomplishments of body and mind.

NOTE 3.—Conjunctions are often improperly used, both singly and in pairs. The following are examples of this impropriety. ‘The relations are so uncertain, as that they require a great deal of examination;’ it should be, ‘*that* they require,’ &c. ‘There was no man so sanguine, who did not apprehend some ill consequences;’ it ought to be, ‘so sanguine as not to apprehend,’ &c. or, no man, how sanguine soever, who did not’ &c. ‘To trust in him is no more to acknowledge his power. This is no other but the gate of paradise.’ In both these instances, *but* should be *than*. ‘We should sufficiently weigh the objects of our hope; whether they are such as we may reasonably expect from them what they propose,’ &c. It ought to be, ‘*that* we may reasonably,’ &c. The duke had not behaved with that loyalty as he ought to have done; *with which* he ought. In the order as they lie in his preface;’ it should be, ‘in order as they lie;’ or, in the order *in which* they lie.’ ‘Such sharp replies cost him his life; as cost him,’ &c. ‘If he were truly that scarecrow, as he is so commonly painted; *such* a scarecrow,’ &c. ‘I wish I could do that justice to his memory, to oblige the painters,’ &c. ‘do *such* justice as to oblige,’ &c.

Exercises in False Syntax.—Be ready to succour such persons, who need your assistance. The matter was no sooner proposed, but he privately withdrew to consider it.—He has too much sense and prudence, than to become a dupe to such artifices.—It is not sufficient, that our conduct, as far as it respects others, appears to be unexceptionable.—The resolution was not the less fixed, that the secret was yet communicated to very few.—He opposed the most remarkable corruptions of the church of Rome, so as that his doctrines were embraced by great numbers.—He gained nothing farther by his speech, but only to be commended for his eloquence.—He has little more of the scholar besides the name. He has little of the scholar than the name.—They had no sooner risen, but they applied themselves to their studies.—From no other institution, besides the admirable one of juris, could so great a benefit be expected.—Those savage people seemed to have no other element but war.—Such men, that act treacherously, ought to be avoided.—Germany ran the same risk, as Italy had done.—No errors are so trivial, but they deserve to be corrected.

NOTE 4.—When the qualities of different things are compared, the latter noun or pronoun is not governed by the conjunction *than* or *as*, but agrees with the verb, or is governed by the verb or the preposition, expressed or understood; as, 'Thou art wiser than I;' that is, 'than I am.' They loved him more than me;' i. e. 'more than they loved me.' The sentiment is well expressed by Plato, but much better by Solomon than him;' that is, 'than by him.'

The propriety or impropriety of many phrases, in the preceding as well as in some other forms, may be discovered, by supplying the words that are not expressed; which will be evident from the following instances of erroneous construction. 'He can read better than me. He is as good as her.' Whether I be present or no. Who did this? Me.' By supplying the words understood in each of these phrases, their impropriety and governing rule will appear; as, 'Better than I can read; As good as she is; Present or not present; I did it.'

Exercises in False Syntax.—In some respects, we have had as many advantages as them; but in the article of a good library, they have had a greater privilege than us.—The undertaking was much better executed by his brother than he.—They are much greater gainers than me by this unexpected event.—They know how to write as well as him; but he is a much better grammarian than them.—Though she is not so learned as him, she is as much beloved and respected.—These people, though they possess more shining qualities, are not so proud as him, nor so vain as her.

NOTE 5.—By not attending to the rule, under Note 4., many errors have been committed; a number of which is subjoined, as a further caution and direction to the learner. 'Thou art a much greater loser than me by his death. She suffers hourly more than me. We contributed a third more than the Dutch, who were obliged to the same proportion more than us. King Charles, and more than him, the duke and the popish faction, were at liberty to form new schemes. The drift of all his sermons was, to prepare the Jews for the reception of a prophet mightier than him, and whose shoes he was not worthy to bear. It was not the work of so eminent an author, as him to whom it was first imputed. A stone is heavy, and the sand weighty; but a fool's wrath is heavier than them both. If the king give us leave, we may perform the office as well as them that do.' In these passages it ought to be, '*I me, he, they*' respectively.

When the relative *who* immediately follows *than*, it seems to form an exception to this rule; for in that connexion, the relative must be in the objective case; as, 'Alfred, *than whom*, a greater king never reigned,' &c. 'Beelzebub, *than whom*, Satan excepted, none higher sat,' &c. It is remarkable that in such instances, if the personal pronoun were used, it would be in the nominative case; as, 'A greater king never reigned *than he*,' that is, '*than he was*. Beelzebub, *than he*' &c. that is, '*than he sat*.' The phrase *than whom*, is, however, avoided by the best modern writers.

Exercises in False Syntax.—Who betrayed her companion? Not me.—Who revealed the secrets he ought to have concealed? Not him.—Who related falsehoods to screen herself, and to bring odium upon others? Not me, it was her.—There is but one in the fault and that is me.—Whether he will be learned or no, must depend on his application. Charles XII. of Sweden, than who a more courageous person never lived, appears to have

been destitute of the tender sensibilities of nature.—Salmasius (a more learned man than him has seldom appeared,) was not happy at the close of his life.

Remarks.—The particle *as*, when it is connected with the pronoun *such*, has the force of a relative pronoun; as, 'Let *such as* presume to advise others, look well to their own conduct;' which is equivalent to, 'Let *them who* presume,' &c. But when used by itself, this particle is to be considered as a conjunction, or perhaps as an adverb.

LECTURE VIII.—OF ADVERBS.

RULE XVII.—Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs; as, 'He *writes well*; She is *very beautiful*; They speak *very correctly*.'

Remarks.—Adverbs, though they have no government of case, tense, &c. require an appropriate situation in the sentence, viz. for the most part, before adjectives, after verbs active or neuter, and frequently between the auxiliary and the verb; as, 'He made a *very sensible* discourse; he *spoke unaffectedly* and *forcibly*, and *was attentively heard* by the whole assembly.'

A few instances of erroneous positions of adverbs may serve to illustrate the rule. 'He must not expect to find study agreeable *always*;' *always* agreeable. We always find them ready when we want them; we find them *always* ready,' &c. 'Dissertations on the prophecies which have remarkably been fulfilled; which have been *remarkably*.' Instead of looking contemptuously down on the crooked in mind or in body, we should look up thankfully to God, who hath made us better; instead of looking down *contemptuously*, &c. we should *thankfully look up*, &c. If thou art blessed naturally with a good memory, continually exercise it; *naturally blessed*, &c. 'exercise it *continually*.'

Sometimes the adverb is placed with propriety before the verb, or at some distance after it; sometimes between the two auxiliaries; and sometimes after both; as in the following examples. 'Vice *always* creeps by degrees, and *inensurably* twines around us those concealed fetters, by which we are at last *completely* bound.' 'He encouraged the English Barons to carry their opposition *farther*.' They compelled him to declare that he would abjure the realm *for ever*,' instead of, 'to carry farther their opposition;' and 'to abjure for ever the realm.' 'He has *generally* been reckoned an honest man. The book may *always* be had at such a place;' in preference to 'has been generally;' and 'may be always.' 'These rules will be *clearly* understood, after they have been *diligently* studied.' is preferable to, 'These rules will *clearly* be understood, after they have *diligently* been studied.'

Exercises in False Syntax.—He was pleasing not often, because he was vain.—William nobly acted, though he was unsuccessful.—We may happily live, though our possessions are small.—From whence we may date likewise the period of this event.—It cannot be impertinent or ridiculous therefore to remonstrate.—He offered an apology, which being not admitted, he became submissive.—These things should be never separated.—Unless he have more government of himself, he will be always discontented.—Never sovereign was so much beloved by his people.—He was determined to invite back the king, and to call together his friends.—So well educated a boy gives great hopes to his friends.—Not only he found her employed, but pleased and tranquil also.—We always should prefer our duty to our pleasure.—It is impossible continually to be at work.—The heavenly bodies are in motion perpetually.—Having not known, or having not considered, the measure proposed, he failed of success.—My opinion was given on rather a cursory perusal of the book.—It is too common with mankind, to be engrossed, and overcome totally by present event.—When the Romans were pressed with a foreign enemy, the women contributed all their rings and jewels voluntarily, to assist the government.

NOTE 1.—The adverb, *never*, generally precedes the verb; as, 'I *never* was there; He *never* comes at a proper time.' When an auxiliary is used, it

is placed indifferently, either before or after this adverb; as, 'He was never seen (or never was seen) to laugh from that time.' *Never* seems to be improperly used in the following passages. 'Ask me never so much dowry and gilt. If I make my hands never so clean. (Harm he never so wisely.' The word '*ever*' would be more suitable to the sense. *Ever* is sometimes improperly used for *never*; as, 'I seldom or ever see him now.' It should be, 'I seldom or never;' the speaker intending to say, 'that rarely or rather at no time,' does he see him now; not rarely,' or 'at any time.'

Exercises in False Syntax.—He looked never better in his life.—She was never in France. This fruit grew never in Europe.—They could not persuade him, though they were never so eloquent.—If some persons' opportunities were never so favourable, they would be too indolent to improve them.—He has never been in this country since.—It is seldom or ever seen here now.

NOTE 2.—In imitation of the French idiom, the adverb of place, *where*, is often used instead of the pronoun relative and a preposition. 'They framed a protestation, *where* they repeated all their former claims;' i. e. '*in which* they repeated.' 'The king was still determined to run forwards, in the same course *where* he was already, by his precipitate career, too fatally advanced;' i. e. '*in which* he was.' But it would be better to avoid this mode of expression.

The adverbs *here*, *there*, *where*, are often improperly applied to verbs signifying motion, instead of the adverbs *hither*, *thither*, *whither*; as, 'He came *here* hastily; They rode *there* with speed.' They should be, 'He came *hither*; They rode *thither*;' &c.

Exercises in False Syntax.—He drew up a petition, where he too freely represented his own merits.—His follies had reduced him to a situation, where he had much to fear, and nothing to hope.—It is reported that the prince will come here to-morrow.—George is active; he walked there in less than an hour.—Where are you all going in such haste? Whither have they been, since they left the city?

NOTE 3.—We have some examples of adverbs being used for substantives. 'In 1687, he erected it into a community of regulars, since *when*, it has begun to increase in those countries as a religious order;' i. e. '*since which time*.' 'A little while and I shall not see you;' i. e. '*a short time*.' It is worth their while;' i. e. 'it deserves their time and pains.' But this mode of expression rather suits a familiar than a grave style. The same may be said of the phrase, 'To do a thing *any how*;' i. e. '*in any manner*;' or, '*somehow*;' i. e. '*in some manner*.' 'Somehow, worthy as these people are, they are under the influence of prejudice.'

Exercises in False Syntax.—Charles left the seminary too early, since when he has made very little improvement.—Nothing is better worth the while of young persons, than the acquisition of knowledge and virtue.—He is somehow worse to-day than he was yesterday.

NOTE 4.—Two negatives, in English, destroy one another, or are equivalent to an affirmative; as, 'Nor did they *not* perceive him;' that is, 'they did perceive him.' 'His language, though inelegant, is *not ungrammatical*;' that is, 'it is grammatical.'

It is better to express an affirmation, by a regular affirmative, than by two separate negatives, as in the former sentence; but when one of the negatives is joined to another word, as in the latter sentence, the two negatives form a pleasing and delicate variety of expression.

Some writers have improperly employed two negatives instead of one; as in the following instances; 'I never did repent of doing good, nor shall not now; nor shall I now. Never no imitator grew up to his author; never did any, &c. 'I cannot by no means allow him what his argument must prove; I cannot by any means,' &c. or, 'I can by no means.' 'Nor let no comforter approach me; nor let any comforter,' &c. 'Nor is danger ever apprehended in such a government, no more than we commonly apprehend danger from thunder or earthquakes;' it should be, '*any more*.' 'Ariosto, Tasso, Galileo, no more

than Raphael, were *not* born in republics. Neither Ariosto, Tasso, nor Galileo, any more than Raphael, was born in a republic.'

Exercises in False Syntax.—Neither riches, nor honours, nor no such perishing goods can satisfy the desires of an immortal spirit.—Be honest, nor take no shape nor semblance of disguise.—We need not, nor do not confine his operations to narrow limits. I am resolved not to comply with the proposal, neither at present, nor at any other time. There cannot be nothing more insignificant than vanity.—Nothing never affected her so much as this misconduct of her child. Do not interrupt me yourselves, nor let no one disturb my retirement.—These people do not judge wisely, nor take no proper measures to effect their purpose.—The measure is so unexceptionable, that we cannot by no means permit it.—I have received no information on the subject, neither from him nor from his friend.—Precept nor discipline is not so forcible as example.—The king nor the queen was not at all deceived in the business.

LECTURE IX.—OF PREPOSITIONS.

RULE XXI.—Prepositions govern the objective case; as, '*From him* that is needy, turn not away; A word to the wise is sufficient *for them*; We may be good and happy *without riches*.'

Remarks.—The following are examples of the nominative case being used instead of the objective. 'Who servest thou under? Who do you speak to? We are still at a loss who civil power belongs to; Who dost thou ask for? Associate not with those, who none can speak well of.' In all these places it ought to be '*whom*.'

The prepositions, *to* and *for*, are often understood, chiefly before the pronouns; as, 'Give me the book; Get me some paper;' that is, '*to me*; *for me*.' 'Who is me;' i. e. '*to me*.' 'He was banished England;' i. e. '*from England*.'

Exercises in False Syntax.—He bought the book for himself.—The selfish care only for themselves.—It was said by somebody, I know not who, that Charles was not the person, who they imputed the crime to.

NOTE 1.—The preposition is often separated from the relative, which it governs; as, 'Whom wilt thou give it to?' instead of, '*To whom* wilt thou give it?' 'He is an author whom I am much delighted with; The world is too polite to shock authors with a truth, which generally their booksellers are the first that inform them of.' This is an idiom to which our language is strongly inclined; it prevails in common conversation, and suits very well with the familiar style in writing; but the placing of the preposition before the relative is more graceful, as well as more perspicuous, and agrees much better with the solemn and elevated style.

Exercises in False Syntax.—To have no one, whom we heartily wish well to, and whom we are warmly concerned for, is a deplorable state.—He is a friend, whom I am highly indebted to, and whom I love to converse with.

NOTE 2.—Some writers separate the preposition from its noun, in order to connect different prepositions with the same noun; as, 'To suppose the zodiac and planets to be efficient *of*, and antecedent *to*, themselves.' This construction, whether in the familiar or the solemn style, is always inelegant, and should generally be avoided. In forms of law, and the like, where fulness and exactness of expression must take place of every other consideration, it may be admitted.

Exercises in False Syntax.—On these occasions, the pronoun is governed by, and consequently agrees with, the preceding word.—They were refused entrance into, and forcibly driven from, the house.—He came from, and is now returning to, France.

NOTE 3.—Different relations and different senses, must be expressed by different prepositions, though in conjunction with the same verb or adjective. Thus we say, 'to converse *with* a person, *upon* a subject, *in* a house, &c.' We

also say, 'We are disappointed of a thing,' when we cannot get it, and 'disappointed in it,' when we have it, and find it does not answer our expectations. But two different prepositions must be improper in the same construction, and in the same sentence; as, 'The combat *between* thirty French *against* twenty English.'

When prepositions are subjoined to nouns, they are generally the same that are subjoined to the verbs from which the nouns are derived; as, 'A compliance *with*, to comply *with*; A disposition *to* tyranny, disposed *to*-tyrannize.'

The words *averse* and *aversion*. (says Dr. Campbell,) are more properly construed with *to*, than with *from*. The examples in favour of the latter preposition are beyond comparison outnumbered by those in favour of the former.

Exercises in False Syntax.—We are often disappointed of things, which, before possession, promised much enjoyment.—I have frequently desired their company, but have always hitherto been disappointed in that pleasure.—The contest was between three French frigates against two English men of war.—The committee was averse from his plan.—He had an unconquerable aversion from affectation.—We have come in compliance to our promise.

NOTE 4.—As an accurate and appropriate use of the preposition is of great importance, we shall select a considerable number of examples of impropriety, in the application of this part of speech.

1st, With respect to the preposition *of*.—'He is resolved of going to the Persian court; *on* going,' &c. 'He was totally dependent of the Papal crown; *on* the Papal,' &c. 'To call of a person,' and 'to wait of him; *on* a person,' &c. 'He was eager of recommending it to his fellow citizens; *in* recommending,' &c. *Of* is sometimes omitted, and sometimes inserted, after *worthy*; as, 'It is worthy observation,' or, 'of observation.' But it would have been better omitted in the following sentences. 'The emulation, who should serve their country best, no longer subsists among them, but *of* who should obtain the most lucrative command. The rain hath been falling *of* a long time; falling a long time. It is situation chiefly which decides of the fortune and characters of men; decides the fortune,' or, 'concerning the fortune. He found the greatest difficulty of writing; *in* writing. It might have given me a greater taste of its antiquities.' A taste *of* a thing implies actual enjoyment of it; but a taste *for* it, implies only a capacity for enjoyment. 'This had a much greater share of inciting him, than any regard after his father's commands; 'share *in* inciting,' and 'regard *to* his father's,' &c.

2d, With respect to the prepositions *to* and *for*.—'You have bestowed your favours to the most deserving persons; *upon* the most deserving,' &c. 'He accused the ministers for betraying the Dutch; *of* having betrayed. His abhorrence to that superstitious figure: *of* that, &c. A great change to the better; *for* the better. Your prejudice to my cause; *against*. The English were very different people then to what they are at present; *from* what,' &c.' 'In compliance to the declaration; *with*,' &c. 'It is more than they thought for; thought *of*. There is no need for it; *of* it.' *For* is superfluous in the phrase, 'More than he knows *for*. No discouragement for the authors to proceed; *to* the authors,' &c. 'It was perfectly in compliance to some persons; *with*. The wisest princes need not think it any diminution to their greatness, or derogation to their sufficiency, to rely upon counsel; diminution *of*,' and 'derogation *from*.'

3d, With respect to the prepositions *with* and *upon*.—'Reconciling himself with the king. Those things which have the greatest resemblance with each other, frequently differ the most. That such rejection should be consonant with our common nature. Conformable with, &c. The history of Peter is agreeable with the sacred texts.' In all the above instances, it should be, '*to*,' instead of '*with*.' 'It is a use that perhaps I should not have thought on; thought *of*. A greater quantity may be taken from the heap, without making any sensible

alteration upon it; *in* it. Intrusted to persons on whom the parliament could confide; *in* whom. He was made much on at Argos; much *of*. If policy can prevail upon force; *over* force. I do likewise dissent with the examiner; *from*.*

4th. With respect to the prepositions *in*, *from*, &c.—‘They should be informed in some parts of his character; *about*, or *concerning*. Upon such occasions as fell into their cognizance; *under*. The variety of factions into which we are still engaged; *in* which. To restore myself into the favour; *to* the favour. Could he have profited from repeated experiences; *by*.’ *From* seems to be superfluous after *forbear*; as, ‘He could not forbear from appointing the pope.’ &c. ‘A strict observance after times and fashions; *of* times. The character which we may now value ourselves by drawing; *upon* drawing. Neither of them shall make me swerve out of the path; *from* the path. Ye blind guides, which strain *at* a gnat, and swallow a camel; it ought to be, ‘which strain *out* a gnat, or, take a gnat out of the liquor by straining it.’ The impropriety of the preposition has wholly destroyed the meaning of the phrase.

The verb, *to found*, when used literally, is more properly followed by the preposition, *on*; as, ‘The house was *founded on* a rock.’ But in the metaphorical application, it is often better with *in*; as, ‘They maintained, that their dominion is *founded in* grace.’ Both the sentences would be badly expressed, if these prepositions were transposed; though there are perhaps cases, in which either of them would be good.

The preposition *among* generally implies a number of things. It cannot be properly used in conjunction with the word *every*, which is in the singular number; as, ‘Which is found *among every* species of liberty; The opinion seems to gain ground *among every* body.’

Exercises in False Syntax—She finds a difficulty of fixing her mind.—Her sobriety is no derogation to her understanding.—There was no water, and he died for thirst.—We can fully confide on none but the truly good.—I have no occasion of his services.—Many have profited from good advice.—Many ridiculous practices have been brought in vogue, The error was occasioned by compliance to earnest intreaty.—This is a principle in unison to our nature.—We should entertain no prejudices to simple and rustic persons. They are at present resolved of doing their duty.—That boy is known under the name of the Idler.—Though conformable with custom, it is not warrantable.—This remark is founded in truth.—His parents think on him, and his improvements with pleasure and hope.—His excuse was admitted of by his master.—What went ye out for to see?—There appears to have been a million men brought into the field.—His present was accepted of by his friends.—More than a thousand of men were destroyed.—It is my request, that he will be particular in speaking to the following points.—The Saxons reduced the greater part Britain to their own power.—He lives opposite the royal exchange.—Their house is situated to the north-east of the road.—The performance was approved of by all who understood it.—He was accused with having acted unfairly.—She has an abhorrence to all deceitful conduct.—They were some distance from home, when the accident happened.—His deportment was adapted for conciliating regard.—My father writes me very frequently.—Their conduct was agreeable with their profession.—We went leisurely above stairs, and came hastily below; we shall write up stairs this forenoon, and down stairs in the afternoon.—The politeness of the world has the same resemblance with benevolence, that the shadow has with the substance.—He had a taste of such studies, and pursued them earnestly.—When we have had a true taste for the pleasures of virtue, we can have no relish of those of vice.—How happy is it to know how to live at times by one’s self, to leave one’s self in regret, to find one’s self again with pleasure!—The world is then less necessary for us.—Civility makes its way among every kind of persons.—His system was founded merely in the opinions of those, whom he consulted.

NOTE 5.—The proposition *to* is made use of before nouns of place, when they follow verbs and participles of motion; as, ‘I went *to* London; I am going *to* town.’ But the preposition *at* is generally used after the nenter verb *to be*; as, ‘I have been *at* London; I was *at* the place appointed; I shall be *at* Paris.’ We likewise say; ‘He touched, arrived *at* any place.’ The preposition *in* is set before countries, cities, and large towns; as, ‘He lives *in* France, *in* London, or *in* Birmingham.’ But before villages, single houses, and cities which are in distant countries, *at* is used; as, ‘He lives *at* Hackney; He resides *at* Montpellier.’

Participles are frequently used as prepositions; as, *excepting*, *respecting*, *touching*, *concerning*, *according*. 'They were all in fault *except* or *excepting* him.'

Exercises in False Syntax.—I have been to London, after having resided a year at Frank; and I now live in Islington.—They have landed in Hull, and are going for Liverpool.—They intend to reside some time at Ireland.—He lives at New-York.—They arrived in Baltimore last week.—She is gone at Boston.

LECTURE X.

SECTION 1.—Of Interjections.

RULE XXIII.—Interjections require the objective case of the first person, but the nominative case of the second or third person, after them; as, 'Ah me! O ye! Oh the times and manners!'

Remarks.—The syntax of the interjection is of so very limited a nature, that it hardly requires a distinct, appropriate rule. Excepting the instances mentioned above, and others of a similar kind, it has but little connexion with the rest of the sentence, either in government, or agreement.

Exercises in False Syntax.—Ah! unhappy thee, who art deaf to the calls of duty, and of honour.—Oh! happy we, surrounded by so many blessings.—O! You, who love iniquity.—Ah! I miserable.—Oh! thee, who touchedst Isaiah's hallowed lips with fire. Ah! you, who hate the light, because your deeds are evil.

SECTION 2.—SUPPLEMENTARY RULES.

1.—Of Ellipses.

Ellipsis is the elegant omission of some word or words in a sentence. The word or words omitted must be known and understood in order to complete the sense, or parse the sentence grammatically. *Example.* 'The sentiment is well expressed by Plato, but much better by Solomon than him.' That is, 'The sentiment is well expressed by Plato, but *it* (or the sentiment) is much better expressed by Solomon than *by* him.' So instead of saying, 'He was a learned man, he was a wise man, and he was a good man;' we make use of the ellipsis, and say, 'He was a learned, wise, and good man.'

RULE XXV.—When the omission of words would obscure the sentence, weaken its force, or be attended with an impropriety, they must be expressed. In the sentence, 'We are apt to love who love us,' the word *them* should be supplied. 'A beautiful field and trees,' is not proper language. It should be, 'Beautiful fields and trees;' or, 'A beautiful field and fine trees.'

Almost all compound sentences are more or less elliptical; some examples of which may be seen under the different parts of speech.

Exercises in False Syntax.—I gladly shunned who gladly fled from me. And this is it men mean by distributive justice, and is properly termed equity. His honour, interest, religion, were all embarked in this undertaking. When so good a man as Socrates fell a victim to the madness of the people, truth, virtue, religion fell with him. The fear of death, nor hope of life, could make him submit to a dishonest action. An elegant house and furniture were, by this event, irrevocably lost to the owner.

NOTE 1.—The ellipsis of the article is thus used; 'A man, woman, and child;' that is, 'a man, a woman, and a child.' 'A house and garden;' that is, 'a house and a garden.' 'The sun and moon;' that is, 'the sun and the moon.'

The day and hour ;' that is, 'the day and the hour.' In all these instances, the article being once expressed, the repetition of it becomes unnecessary — there is, however, an exception to this observation, when some peculiar emphasis requires a repetition ; as in the following sentence. 'Not only the year, but the day and the hour.' In this case, the ellipsis of the last article would be improper. When a different form of the article is requisite, the article is also properly repeated ; as, 'a house and an orchard ;' instead of, 'a house and orchard.'

Exercises in False Syntax.—These rules are addressed to none but the intelligent and the attentive. The gay and the pleasing are, sometimes, the most insidious, and the most dangerous companions. Old age will prove a joyless and a dreary season, if we arrive at it with an unimproved, or with a corrupted mind. The more I see of his conduct, I like him better. It is not only the duty, but interest of young persons to be studious and diligent.

NOTE 2.—The ellipsis of the *adjective* is used in the following manner. 'A delightful garden and orchard ;' that is, 'a delightful garden and a delightful orchard ;' A little man and woman ;' that is, 'A little man and a little woman.' In such elliptical expressions as these, the adjective ought to have exactly the same signification, and to be quite as proper, when joined to the latter substantive as to the former ; otherwise the ellipsis should not be admitted.

Sometimes the ellipsis is improperly applied to nouns of different numbers ; as, 'A magnificent house and gardens.' In this case it is better to use another adjective ; as, 'A magnificent house and fine gardens.'

Exercises in False Syntax.—His crimes had brought him into extreme distress, and extreme perplexity. He has an affectionate brother, and an affectionate sister, and they live together in great harmony. We must guard against too great severity, and facility of manners. We should often recollect what the wisest men have said and written, concerning human happiness and vanity. That species of commerce will produce great gain or loss. Many days, and even weeks pass away unimproved. This wonderful action struck the beholders with exceeding astonishment. The people of this country possess a healthy climate and soil. They also enjoy a free constitution and laws.

NOTE 3.—The *noun* is frequently omitted in the following manner. 'The laws of God and man ;' that is, 'the laws of God and the laws of man.' In some very emphatical expressions, the ellipsis should not be used ; as, 'Christ the power of God, and the wisdom of God ;' which is more emphatical than, 'Christ be power and wisdom of God.'

Exercises in False Syntax.—These counsels were the dictates of virtue, and the dictates of true honour. Avarice and cunning may acquire an estate ; but avarice and cunning cannot gain friends. A taste for useful knowledge will provide for us a great and noble entertainment, when others leave us. Without firmness, nothing that is great can be undertaken ; that is difficult or hazardous, can be accomplished. The anxious man is the votary of riches ; the negligent, of pleasure.

NOTE 4.—The following is the ellipsis of the *pronoun*. 'I love and fear him ;' that is, 'I love him, and I fear him.' 'My house and lands ;' that is, 'my house and my lands.' In these instances the ellipsis may take place with propriety ; but if we would be more express and emphatical, it must not be used ; as, 'His friends and his foes ; My sons and my daughters.'

In some of the common forms of speech, the relative pronoun is usually omitted ; as, 'This is the man they love ;' instead of, 'This is the man *whom* they love.' These are the goods they bought ; for, 'These are the goods *which* they bought.'

In complex sentences, it is much better to have the relative pronoun expressed ; as it is more proper to say, 'The posture in which I lay,' than, 'In the posture I lay ; The horse on which I rode, fell down ;' than 'The horse I rode fell down.'

The antecedent and the relative connect the parts of a sentence together, and, prevent obscurity and confusion, should answer to each other with great ex-

actness. 'We speak that we do know, and testify that we have seen.' Here the ellipsis is manifestly improper, and ought to be supplied; as, 'We speak that *which* we do know, and testify that *which* we have seen.'

Exercises in False Syntax.—His reputation and his estate were both lost by gaming. This intelligence not only excited our hopes, but fears too. His conduct is not scandalous; and that is the best can be said of it. This was the person, whom calumny had greatly abused, and sustained the injustice with singular patience. He discovered some qualities, in the youth, of a disagreeable nature, and to him were wholly unaccountable. The captain had several men died in his ship, of the scurvy. He is not only sensible and learned, but is religious too. The Chinese language contains an immense number of words; and who would learn them must possess a great memory. By presumption and by vanity, we provoke enmity and incur contempt. In the circumstances I was at that time, my troubles pressed heavily upon me. He has destroyed his constitution by the very same errors, that so many have been destroyed.

NOTE 5.—The ellipsis of the *verb* is used in the following instances. 'The man was old and crafty;' that is, 'the man was old, and the man was crafty.'—'She was young, and beautiful, and good;' that is, 'She was young, she was beautiful, and she was good.' 'Thou art poor, and wretched, and miserable, and blind, and naked.' If we would fill up the ellipsis in the last sentence, *thou art* ought to be repeated before each of the adjectives.

If, in such enumeration, we choose to point out one property above the rest, that property must be placed last, and the ellipsis supplied; as, 'She is young and beautiful, and she is good.'

The auxiliary verbs are often very properly omitted before the principal verbs; as, 'I have seen and heard him very frequently;' not, 'I *have* heard;' 'He will lose his estate, and incur reproach;' not, 'he *will* incur.' But when any thing is emphatically expressed, or when opposition is denoted, this ellipsis should be avoided; as, 'I have seen, and I have heard him too; He was admired, but he was not beloved.'

Exercises in False Syntax.—He is temperate, he is disinterested, he is benevolent; he is an ornament to his family, and he is a credit to his profession. Genuine virtue supposes our benevolence to be strengthened, and to be confirmed by principle. Perseverance in laudable pursuits will reward all our toils, and will produce effects beyond our calculation. It is happy for us, when we can calmly and deliberately look back on the past, and can quietly anticipate the future. The sacrifices of virtue will not only be rewarded hereafter, but recompensed even in this life. All those possessed of any office, resigned their former commission. If young persons were determined to conduct themselves by the rules of virtue, not only would they escape innumerable dangers, but command respect from the licentious themselves. Charles was a man of learning, knowledge, and benevolence; and what is still more, a true christian.

NOTE 6.—The ellipsis of the *conjunction* is as follows; 'They confess the power, wisdom, goodness, and love, of their creator;' i. e. 'the power, and wisdom and goodness, and love of.' &c. 'Though I love him, I do not flatter him;' that is, 'Though I love him, *yet* I do not flatter him.'

There is a very common ellipsis of the conjunction, *that*; as, 'He told me he would proceed immediately; I desired he would not be too hasty; I fear it comes too much from the heart;' instead of, 'He told me *that* he would proceed immediately; I desired *that* he would not be too hasty; I fear *that* it comes too much from the heart.' This ellipsis is tolerable in conversation, and in epistolary writing; but it should be sparingly indulged in every other species of composition. The French do not use this mode of expression; they avoid the ellipsis on such occasions.

Exercises in False Syntax.—In all stations and conditions, the important relations take place of masters and servants, and husbands and wives, and parents and children, and brothers and friends, and citizens and subjects. Destitute of principle, he regarded neither his family, nor his friends, nor his reputation. Religious persons are often unjustly represented as persons of romantic character, visionary notions, unacquainted with the world, unfit to live in it. No rank, station, dignity of birth, possessions, exempt men from contributing their share to public utility. He told me he had finished his task. They assured us they would wait for us.

NOTE 7.—The ellipsis of the *adverb* is used in the following manner. ‘He spoke and acted wisely;’ that is, ‘He spoke wisely, and he acted wisely.’ ‘Thrice I went and offered my service;’ that is, ‘Thrice I went, and thrice I offered my service.’

Exercises in False Syntax.—The temper of him, who is always in the hustle of the world will often be ruffled, and often disturbed. We often commend imprudently, as well as censure imprudently. How a seed grows up into a tree and the mind acts upon the body are mysteries, which we cannot explain. Verily, there is a reward for the righteous! There is a God, that judgeth in the earth.

NOTE 8.—The ellipsis of the *preposition*, as well of the verb, is seen in the following instances;—‘He went into the abbey, halls, and public buildings;’ that is, ‘he went into the abbey, he went into the halls, and he went into the public buildings. He also went through all the streets and lanes of the city;’ that is, ‘Through all the streets, and through all the lanes,’ &c. ‘He spoke to every man and woman there,’ that is, ‘to every man and to every woman there.’ ‘This day, next month, last year;’ that is, ‘on this day in the next month, in the last year. The Lord doeth that which seemeth him good;’ that is, ‘which seemeth to him.’

Exercises in False Syntax.—Changes are almost continually taking place in men and in manners, in opinions and in customs, in private fortunes and public conduct. Averse either to contradict or blame, the too complaisant man goes along with the manners, that prevail. By this habitual indelicacy, the virgins smiled at what they blushed before. They are now reconciled to what they could not be prompted formerly by any considerations. Censure is the tax, which a man pays the public for being eminent. Reflect on the state of human life, and the society of men, as mixed with good and with evil.

NOTE 9.—The ellipsis of the *interjection* is not very common; it however, is sometimes used; as, ‘Oh! pity and shame!’ that is, ‘Oh pity! Oh shame!’

As the ellipsis occurs in almost every sentence in the English language, numerous examples of it might be given; but only a few more can be admitted here.

In the following instance there is a very considerable one;—‘He will often argue, that if this part of our trade were well cultivated, we should gain from one nation; and if another, from another;’ that is, ‘He will often argue, that if this part of our trade were well cultivated, we should gain from one nation; and if another part of our trade were well cultivated, we should gain from another nation.’

The following instances, though short, contain much of the ellipsis; ‘We is me;’ i. e. ‘we is to me.’ ‘To let blood;’ i. e. ‘to let out blood.’ ‘To let down,’ i. e. ‘to let fall or slide down.’ ‘To walk a mile;’ i. e. ‘to walk through the space of a mile.’ ‘To sleep all night;’ i. e. ‘to sleep through all the night.’ ‘To go a fishing; To go a hunting;’ i. e. ‘to go on a fishing voyage or business; to go on a hunting party.’ ‘I dine at two o’clock;’ i. e. ‘at two of the clock.’ ‘By sea, by land, on shore;’ i. e. ‘By the sea, by the land, on the shore.’

There is a very common ellipsis of the preposition after the word *like*; as, ‘Sloth is like the slowly-flowing, putrid stream;’ that is, ‘Sloth is like unto,’ &c. Also, in the use of the word, *worth*; as, ‘The horse is worth fifty dollars,’ i. e. ‘of the worth (or value) of fifty dollars.’

NOTE 10.—The examples, that follow, are produced to show the impropriety of ellipsis in some particular cases. ‘The land was always possessed, during pleasure, by those intrusted with the command;’ it should be, ‘those persons intrusted;’ or, ‘those *who were* intrusted.’ ‘If he had read further, he would have found several of his objections might have been spared;’ that is, ‘he would have found *that* several of his objections,’ &c. ‘There is nothing men are more deficient in, than knowing their own characters.’ It ought to be, ‘nothing in *which* men;’ and, ‘than in knowing.’ ‘I scarcely know any part of natural philosophy would yield more variety and use;’ it should be, ‘*which* would yield,’ &c. ‘In the temper of mind he was then;’ i. e. ‘in *which* he then was.

The little satisfaction and consistency, to be found in most of the systems of divinity I have met with, made me betake myself to the sole reading of the Scriptures; it ought to be, '*which are to be found,*' and, '*which I have met with.*' He desired they might go to the altar together, and jointly return their thanks to whom only they were due; i. e. '*to him to whom,*' &c.

Exercises in False Syntax.—That is a property most men have, or at least may attain. Why do ye that, which is not lawful to do on the Sabbath days? The show-bread, which is not lawful to eat, but for the priests only. Most, if not all the royal family had quitted the palace. By these happy labours, they, who sow and reap, will rejoice together.

2.—Construction of the Parts of Sentences.

RULE XXVI.—All the parts of a sentence should correspond to each other; a regular and dependent construction, throughout, should be carefully preserved. The following sentence is therefore inaccurate;—'He was more beloved, but not so much admired, as Cinthio.' 'It should be, 'He was more beloved than Cinthio, but not so much admired.'

The first example under this rule, presents a most irregular construction, namely, 'He was was more beloved *as* Cinthio.' The words *more* and *so much*, are very improperly stated as having the same regimen. In correcting such sentences, it is not necessary to supply the latter ellipsis; because it cannot lead to any discordant or improper construction, and the supply would often be harsh or inelegant.

As this rule comprehends all the preceding rules, it may, at first view, appear to be too general to be useful. But by ranging under it a number of sentences peculiarly constructed, we shall perceive, that it is calculated to ascertain the true grammatical construction of many modes of expression, which none of the particular rules can sufficiently explain.

'This dedication may serve for almost any book, that, is, or shall be published.' It ought to be, 'that has been, or shall be published. He was guided by interests always different, sometimes contrary to, those of the community; different *from*;' or, 'always different from those of the community, and sometimes contrary to them. Will it be urged that these books are as old, or even older than tradition?' The words, 'as old,' and 'older,' cannot have a common regimen; it should be 'as old as tradition, or even older. It requires few talents to which most men are not born, or at least may not acquire; or which, at least they may not acquire. The court of chancery frequently mitigates and breaks the teeth of the common law.' In this construction, the first verb is said, 'to mitigate the teeth of the common law,' which is an evident solecism. 'Mitigates the common law, and breaks the teeth of it,' would have been grammatical.

'They presently grow into good humour, and good language towards the crown; grow into good language,' is very improper. 'There is never wanting a set of evil instruments, who either out of mad zeal, private hatred, or filthy lucre, are always ready,' &c. We say properly, 'A man acts out of mad zeal,' or, 'out of private hatred;' but we cannot say, if we would speak English, 'he *act* out of filthy lucre.' 'To double her kindness and caresses of me;' the word 'kindness' requires to be followed by either *to* or *for*, and cannot be construed with the preposition *of*. 'Never was man so teased, or suffered half the uneasiness, as I have done this evening;' the first and third clauses, viz. 'Never was man so teased, as I have done this evening,' cannot be joined without an impropriety; and to connect the second and third, the word *that* must be substituted for *as*; 'Or suffered half the uneasiness that I have done;' or else, 'half so much uneasiness as I have suffered.'

Germany. Such writers have no other standard on which to form themselves, except what chances to be fashionable and popular. Whatever we do secretly, shall be displayed and heard in the clearest light. To the happiness of possessing a person of such uncommon merit, Boethius soon had the satisfaction of obtaining the highest honour his country could bestow.

SECTION 3.—*Containing instances of False Syntax, promiscuously disposed.*

1. Though great has been his disobedience and his folly, yet if he sincerely acknowledges his misconduct, he will be forgiven. On these causes depend all the happiness or misery, which exist among men. The property of James, I mean his books and furniture, were wholly destroyed. This prodigy of learning, this scholar, critic, and antiquarian, were entirely destitute of breeding and civility. That writer has given an account of the manner, in which Christianity has formerly been propagated among the heathens. We adore the Divine Being, he who is from eternity to eternity. Thou, Lord, who hath permitted affliction to come upon us, shall deliver us from it, in due time. In this place, there were not only security, but an abundance of provisions. By these attainments are the master honoured, and the scholars encouraged. The sea appeared to be more than usually agitated. Not one in fifty of those, who call themselves deists, understand the nature of the religion they reject. Virtue and mutual confidence is the soul of friendship; where these are wanting, disgust or hatred often follow little differences. Time and chance happeneth to all men; but every person do not consider who govern those powerful causes. The active mind of man never or seldom rests satisfied with their present condition, however prosperous. Habits must be acquired of temperance and of self-denial that we may be able to resist pleasure, and endure pain, when either of them interfere with our duty. The error of resting wholly on faith, or on works, is one of those seductions, which most easily misleads men; under the semblance of piety, on the one hand, and of virtue on the other hand. It was no exaggerated tale; for she was really in that sad condition, that her friend represented her. An army present a painful sight to a testing mind. The enemies, who we have most to fear, are those of our own hearts. Thou art the Messiah, the Son of God, who was to come into the world, and hast been so long promised and desired. Thomas disposition is better than his brothers; and he appears to be the happiest man;—but some degree of trouble is all mens portion. Though remors sleep sometimes during prosperity, it will awake surely in adversity. It is an invariable law to our present condition, that every pleasure, that are pursued to excess, convert themselves into poison. If a man brings into the solitary retreat of age, a vacant, an unimproved mind, where no knowledge dawns, no ideas rise, which within itself has nothing to feed upon, many a heavy and many a comfortless day he must necessarily pass. I cannot yield to such dishonourable conduct, neither at the present moment of difficulty, nor, I trust, under no circumstance whatever. Themistocles concealed the enterprises of Pausanias, either thinking it base to betray the secrets trusted to his confidence, or imagined it impossible for such dangerous and ill concerted schemes to take effect. Pericles gained such an ascendant over the minds of the Athenians, that he might be said to attain a monarchical power in Athens. Christ did applaud the liberality of the poor widow, who he had seen casting her two mites in the treasury. A multiplicity of little kind offices, in persons frequently conversant with each other, is the bands of society, and of friendship. To do good to them that hate us, and, on no occasion, to seek revenge, is the duty of a Christian. If a man profess a regard for the duties of religion, and neglect that of morality, that man's religion is vain. Affluence might give us respect, in the eyes of the vulgar, but will not recommend us to the wise and good. The polite, accomplished libertine is but miserable amidst all his pleasures; the rude inhabitant of Lapland is happier than him. The cheerful and the gay, when warmed by pleasure and by mirth, lose that sobriety and self-denial, which is essential to the support of virtue.

2. There were, in the metropolis, much to amuse them, as well as many things to excite disgust. How much is real virtue and merit exposed to suffer the hardships of a stormy life! This is one of the duties, which requires peculiar circumspection. More complex happiness, than that I have described, seldom falls to the lot of mortals. There are principles in man, which ever have, and ever will incline him to offend. Whence have there arose such a great variety of opinions and tenets in religion? Its stature is less than that of a man; but its strength and agility much greater. They that honour me, them will I honour. He summones me to attend, and I must summons the others. Then did the officer lay hold of him, and executed him immediately. Who is that person, whom I saw you introduce, and prevent him to the duke? I offer observations, that a long and chequered pilgrimage have enabled me to make on man. Every church and sect of people have a set of opinions peculiar to themselves. May thou as well as me, be such,

and forgiving. These men were under high obligations to have adhered to their every situation of life. After I visited Europe, I returned to America. Their influence, their fortune, every talent they possess, dispenses blessings on all them. When a string of such sentences succeed one another, the effect is disagreeable. I have lately been in Gibraltar, and have seen the commander in chief. Pronunciation is the giving to every word the sound, which the politest usage of language appropriates to it. The book is printed very neat, and on fine wove paper. The plates of the ancients are many of them highly instructive. He resembles one of those animals, that has been forced from its forest, to gratify human curiosity. There nor ought not to be, such a thing as constructive treason. He is a new created man, and his dignity sits awkward on him. Hatred or revenge are things deserving of punishment, wherever they are found to exist. If you please to employ your thoughts on this subject, you would easily conceive our miserable condition. His speech contains the grossest and infamousest calumnies, which ever was uttered. A too great variety of studies dissipate and weaken the mind. Those two authors have each of them a great deal to say. James was resolved to not indulge himself in such a cruel amusement. The not attending to this rule, is the source of a very common error. Calumny and detraction are the worst of arts, which if you do not blow, they will go out of themselves. Clelia is a vain woman, whom if we do not flatter, she will be disgusted. That celebrated work was ten years published, before its importance was at all understood. A great mass of matter is thrown together by the hand of nature, with wildness and confusion, strike the eye with more grandeur, than if they were adjusted to one another with the accuratest art.

He showed a spirit of forgiveness, and a magnanimity, that does honour to human nature. They that honour me, I will honour; and them that despise me shall be lightly esteemed. Having thus began to throw off the restraints of reason, he was soon hurried into pleasurable excesses. These arts have enlightened, and will enlighten, every person who attentively study them. When we succeed in our plans, it is not to be attributed to ourselves; the aid of others often promotes the end, and claims our acknowledgment. Their intentions were good; but wanting prudence, they mist the mark for they aimed. I have not, nor shall not consent to a proposal so unjust. We have expended ourselves to much expense, that thou may be well educated. This treaty was made at Earl Moreton the governor's castle. Be especially careful, that thou givest no occasion to the aged or helpless. The business was no sooner opened, but it was cordially received in. As to his general conduct, he deserved punishment as much, or more than any man. He left a son of a singular character, and behaved so ill that he was put in prison. If he does but approve my endeavours, it will be an ample reward. In favour of your acceptance of a copy of a view of the manufactories of the West of the county of York. I intended to have written the letter, before he urged me to do so, and, therefore, he has not all the merit of it. All the power of ridicule, aided by the censure of friends, and the diminution of his estate, were not able to shake his principles.

In his conduct was treachery, and in his words, faithless professions. Though assured he is mysterious, it is worthy of attention. Be solicitous to aid such deserving persons, who appear to be destitute of friends. Ignorance or the want of light, prodigality, covetousness, and those violent contests with others about trifles, which occasion much misery and crimes in the world. He will one day reap the reward of his industry, if he is diligent and attentive. Till that period comes, let him be contented and patient. To the resolutions which we have, upon due consideration, once adopted as the rule of conduct, let us adhere firmly. He has little more of the great man besides the name. Though he was my superior in knowledge, he would not have thence a right to dictate his sentiments. That picture of the emperor's is a very exact resemblance of him. Happy are the virtuous, who can rest on the protection of the powerful arm, who support the earth and the heaven! Prosperity and adversity may be improved equally; he one and the other proceeds from the same author. He acted conformable with the instructions, and cannot be censured justly. The orators did not forget to enlarge on so popular a subject. The language of Divine Providence to all human beings is, 'Hitherto shalt thou come, and no further.' Little persons imagine, howsoever great they be in point of duty, they consult at least their own satisfaction. Good as it is, it is one from which numbers are deserted. The man is prudent which is content with a little.

He acted independent of foreign assistance. Every thing that we here enjoy, change, and come to an end. All float on the surface of the river, which is running to a boundless ocean, with a swift current. The winter has not been severe as we expected it to be. Temperance, more than medicines, are the proper means of curing many diseases. They understand the practical part better than him; but he is much better acquainted with the theory than them. When we have once drawn the line, by intelligence and decision, between our duty and sin, the line we ought on no occasion to transgress.

All those distinguished by extraordinary talents, have extraordinary duties to perform. No person could speak stronger on this subject, nor behave nobler, than our young advocate for the cause of toleration. His conduct was so provoking, that many will condemn him, and a few will pity him. The people's happiness is the statesman's honour. We are in a perilous situation; on one side, and the other, dangers meet us; and each extreme shall be pernicious to virtue. Several pictures of the Sardinian king were transmitted to France. If we consult the improvement of mind, or the health of body, it is well known exercise is the great instrument for promoting both. If it were them, who acted so ungratefully, they are doubly in fault. Whether virtue promotes our interest or no, we must adhere to her dictates. We should be studious to avoid too much indulgence, as well as restraint, in our management of children. No human happiness is so complete, as does not contain some imperfection. His father cannot hope for this success, unless his son gives better proofs of genius, or applies himself with indefatigable labour. The house framed a remonstrance, where they spoke with great freedom of the king's prerogative. The conduct, which has been mentioned, is one of those artifices, which seduce men most easily, under appearance of benevolence. This is the person, who we are so much obliged to, and who we expected to have seen, when the favour was conferred. He is a person of great property, but does not possess the esteem of his neighbours. They were solicitous to ingratiate with those, who it was dishonourable to favour. The great diversity, which takes place among men, is not owing to a distinction that nature made in their original powers, as much as to the superior diligence, with which some have improved those powers beyond others. While we are unoccupied in what is good, evil is at hand continually. Not a creature is there that moves, nor a vegetable that grows, but what, when minutely examined, furnished materials of pious admiration. What can be the reason of the committee having delayed this business? I know not whether Charles was the author, but I understood it to be he. A good and well cultivated mind, is far more preferable than rank or riches. Charity to the poor, when it is governed by knowledge and prudence, there are no persons who will not admit it to be a virtue. His greatest concern, and highest enjoyment, were to be approved in the sight of his Creator. Let us not set our hearts on such a mutable, such an unsatisfying world.

J. Shall you attain success, without that preparation, and escape dangers without that precaution, which is required of others? When we see had men to be honoured and prosperous in the world, it is some discouragement to virtue. The furniture was all purchased at Wentworth's the joiner's. Every member of the body, every bone, joint, and muscle, is exposed to many disorders; and the greatest prudence or precaution, or the deepest skill of the physician, are not sufficient to prevent them. It is right said, that though faith justify us, yet works must justify our faith. If an academy is established for the cultivation of our language, let them stop the license of translators, whose idleness and ignorance, if it be suffered to proceed, will reduce us to babble a dialect of French. It is of great consequence, that a teacher firmly believes, both the truth and importance of those principles which he inculcates upon others; and that he not only speculatively believes them, but has a lively and serious feeling of them. It is not the uttering, or the hearing certain words, that constitute the worship of the Almighty. It is the heart that praises, or prays. If the heart accompany not the words that are spoken, we offer a sacrifice of fools. Neither flatter or condemn the rich or the great. He has travelled much, and passed through many stormy seas and lands. You must be sensible that there is, and can be no other person but me, who could give the information desired. To be patient, resigned, and thankful, under afflictions and disappointments, demonstrate genuine piety. Alvarez was a man of corrupt principles, and of detestable conduct; and, what, is still worse, gloried in his shame. As soon as the sense of a Supreme Being is lost, so soon the great check is taken off, which keep under restraint the passions of men. Mean desires, low pleasures, take place of the greater and the nobler sentiments, which reason and religion inspires. Steady application, as well as genius and abilities, are necessary to produce eminence. There is, in that seminary, several students considerably skilled in mathematical knowledge. If Providence clothe the grass of the field, and shelters and adorns the flowers, that every where grows wild amongst it, will he not clothe and protect his servants and children much more? We are too often hurried with the violence of passion, or with the allurements of pleasure. High hopes, and florid views, is a great enemy to tranquillity. I intended to have finished the letter before the bearer called, that he might not have been detained; but I was prevented by company.—George is the most learned and accomplished of all the other students, that belong to the seminary. This excellent and well written treatise, with others that might be mentioned, were the foundation of his love of study. There can be no doubt but that the pleasures of the mind excel those of sense.

For Lectures on Prosody, the learner is referred to the larger grammar, of which this is an abridgement.

PUNCTUATION.

PUNCTUATION is the art of dividing a written composition into sentences or parts of sentences, by points or stops, in order to mark the different pauses, which the sense and an accurate pronunciation require.

The points, principally used in written composition, are

THE COMMA ,
THE SEMICOLON ;

THE COLON : and
THE PERIOD .

The *Comma* represents the shortest pause ; the *Period*, the longest ; and the *Semicolon*, a pause between the comma and the period. To these three points, grammarians have generally added the *Colon*, as representing a pause between the semicolon and the period.

Punctuation is a modern art. The ancients were entirely unacquainted with the use of our points ; and wrote not only without any distinction of members and periods, but also without distinction of words. This custom continued till the year 360 before Christ. How the ancients read their works, written in this manner, it is not easy to conceive. After the practice of joining words together had ceased, notes of distinction were placed at the end of every word. This practice, with some variation, continued a considerable time.

As it appears, that the present usage of stops did not take place, whilst manuscripts and monumental inscriptions were the only known methods of conveying knowledge, we must conclude that it was introduced with the art of printing. The introduction was, however, gradual ; all the points did not appear at once. The colon, semicolon, and note of admiration were produced sometime after the others. The whole set, as they are now used, came to be established, when learning and refinement had made considerable progress.

The precise quantity or duration of each pause cannot be defined ; for it varies with the time of the whole, and with the occasion of pronouncing the discourse. The opinion that the points denote pauses of a definite, uniform length, and that the pauses in reading are to be exactly measured by the points inserted in the composition, is very erroneous ; and has probably contributed very much to that dull, monotonous manner of reading and speaking, which is observed to be so powerful in lulling an audience to sleep. Punctuation is founded principally on Syntax ; and has little more to do in regulating the pauses to be made in reading, than as it assists the reader to discover the grammatical construction and connexion of sentences and the parts of sentences. The judicious reader will, therefore, regulate his pauses according to the sense ; sometimes making a pause where no point is inserted ; and frequently making pauses of the same length, on different occasions, at different points, and pauses of different length at the same points.

In order to determine the proper application of the points, it is necessary to understand what is meant by an *adjunct* or *imperfect phrase*, a *simple sentence*, and a *compound sentence*.

An *adjunct* or *imperfect phrase* contains no assertion, or does not amount to a proposition ; as, ' Therefore,' ' desirous of praise,' ' in the pursuit of riches.'

A *simple sentence* contains one subject or nominative case, and one finite verb, expressed or understood ; as, ' Exercise promotes health.'

A *compound sentence* contains more than one subject and one finite verb, ex-

pressed or implied ; as, 'Examine well the counsel, that favours your desire.'

The subject and verb may both be attended with adjuncts, expressing the object, cause, end, time, place, manner, and the like.

A sentence is rendered compound, not only by means of a plurality of subjects and verbs, but also of adjuncts.

If two or more adjuncts are connected with the verb in the same manner, by the same preposition, conjunction, &c. the sentence is compound, and may be resolved into two or more simple ones. But if the adjuncts are connected with the verb in a different manner, the sentence is simple ; as, 'They have sacrificed their health and fortune at the shrine of vanity, pride, and extravagance.' 'Elegance of taste has a connexion with many virtues of the most amiable kind.'

In the former example, several of the adjuncts being connected with the verb in the same manner, the sentence is compound ; in the latter, all the adjuncts being connected with the verb in a different manner, the sentence is simple.

Of the Comma.

RULE I.—The members of a simple sentence must not be separated by a comma ; as, 'Adversity borrows its sharpest sting from our impatience.'

Exercises in False Punctuation.—Illness, is the great fomentor of all corruptions in the human heart.—The tear of repentance, brings its own relief.—The friend of order, has made half his way, to virtue.—All finery, is a sign of littleness.—To be, contents is natural desire.—To see the sun, is pleasant.—Advice, should be seasonably administered.—The indulgence, of harsh dispositions, is the introduction to future misery.—The best of men, often experience disappointments.

EXCEPTION 1.—An adjunct of importance not standing in its natural order, especially an adjunct of the verb, if it come before the subject, between the subject and verb, or between the verb and its object, may often be separated by a comma on both sides ;—as, 'Within the last fifteen years, that Honourable Body has lost a large proportion of its members.' 'That Honourable Body, within the last fifteen years, has lost, &c.' or, 'That Honourable Body has lost, within the last fifteen years, a large proportion, &c.'

Exercises.—The tutor by instruction and discipline lays the foundation of the pupil's future honour.—Charity like the sun brightens all its objects.—Gentleness is in truth the great avenue to mutual enjoyment.—Trials in this stage of being are the lot of man.—By industry and economy he amassed a large fortune. We have received by the late arrivals important news from Europe.

EXCEPTION 2.—The nominative case independent, when an address is made, and nouns in apposition, when attended with adjuncts, must be separated by commas ; as, 'Do, Trim, said my uncle Toby.' 'Death, the King of terrors, chose a prime minister.'

Exercises.—Continue my dear child to make virtue thy principal study.—To you, worthy benefactors am I indebted under providence for all I enjoy.—Hope the balm of life soothes us under every misfortune.—Confucius the great Chinese philosopher was as ingeniously good as well as wise.

EXCEPTION 3.—The nominative case absolute, and the infinitive mood absolute, with their adjuncts ; an adjective or participle with words depending on it ; and, generally, any imperfect phrase, which may be resolved into a simple sentence, must be separated by a comma ; as, 'His father dying, he succeeded to the estate.' 'To confess the truth, I was in fault.' 'Who, having finished the usual Academic course, have returned to us again, to prosecute your professional studies.'

Exercises.—Peace of mind being secured we may smile at misfortune.—To prevent further altercation I submitted to the terms proposed.—Charles having been deprived of the help of tutors his studies became totally neglected.—The chancellor being attached to the king secured his crown.

EXCEPTION 4.—Where the verb of a simple sentence is understood, a comma

may sometimes be inserted ; as, ' From law arises security ; from security, closeness ; from curiosity, knowledge.'

Exercises.—From Boston he proceeded to New-York ; from New-York to Philadelphia.—As a companion he was severe and satirical ; as a friend captious and dangerous ; in his domestic sphere harsh, jealous, and irascible.

RULE II.—A compound sentence must be resolved into simple ones, and separated by commas ; as, ' The decay, the waste, and the dissolution of a plant may affect our spirits, and suggest a train of serious reflections '

Exercises.—Self-conceit presumption and obstinacy blent the prospect of many a youth.—Discomposed thoughts agitated passions and a ruffled temper poison every pleasure of life.—We have no reason to complain of the lot of man nor of the world's mutability.—Sensuality contaminates the body depresses the understanding deadens the moral feelings of the heart and degrades man from his rank in the creation.—It is labour only which gives the relish to pleasure.—In that unaffected civility which springs from a gentle mind there is an incomparable charm.—Many of the evils which occasion our complaints of the world are wholly imaginary.

EXCEPTION 1.—Two words of the same kind, immediately connected by a conjunction, though they may render the sentence a compound one, must not be separated. But, if there be more than two, they must all be separated, unless connected in pairs, in which case the pairs only must be separated ; as, ' Some men sin deliberately *and* presumptuously.' ' Deaths of parents, friends, *and* companions are doubtless intended for our improvement.' ' There is a natural difference between merit *and* demerit, virtue *and* vice, wisdom *and* folly.'

Exercises.—We are fearfully, and wonderfully made.—Benefits should be long, and gratefully remembered.—When thy friend is calumniated openly, and boldly espouse his cause.—Human affairs are in continual motion, and fluctuation.—Time brings a gentle, and powerful opiate to all misfortunes.—The man of virtue, and honour will be trusted, and esteemed.—Conscious guilt renders us mean-spirited timorous and base.—In our health life possessions connexions pleasures there are causes of decay imperceptibly working.—Health and peace a moderate fortune and a few friends sum up all the undoubted articles of temporal felicity.—An upright mind will never be at a loss to discern what is just and true lovely and honest praise-worthy and of good report.—To live soberly righteously and piously comprehends the whole of our duty.

EXCEPTION 2.—In comparative sentences, where the members are short, the comma is better omitted ; as, ' Wisdom is better than riches.' ' No preacher is so successful as time.'

Exercises.—How much better it is to get wisdom, than gold !—Mankind act oftener from caprice, than reason.—Expect no more from the world than it is able to afford you.—The friendships of the world can subsist no longer than interest cements them.—I do not like this so well, as that.

EXCEPTION 3.—Sentences, connected by *what*, cannot be separated ; and, where the relative is understood, the comma is generally omitted ; as, ' Eat what is set before you.' ' With sorrow may they mingle gratitude for the wise counsel he has given them, and for the excellent example he has set before them for imitation.' ' Value duly the opportunities you enjoy.'

Exercises.—I did not hear what, you said.—I did not receive the letter, you sent me.—The music, we heard last evening, was very fine.—This is the man, we saw yesterday.

EXCEPTION 4.—When a simple sentence stands as the object of a preceding verb, and its verb may be changed into the infinitive mood, the comma may be omitted ; as, ' When I supposed he was at rest ;' changed, ' when I suppose him to be at rest.'

Exercises.—They believed, he was dead.—I supposed, she was the person, who brought the news.—On the morrow while they thought, he was yet alive, they repaired to his house.

Of the Semicolon.

RULE III.—When a longer pause than a comma is required, and yet the

sense is incomplete, a semicolon may be used; as, 'The wise man is he when he gains his own approbation; the fool, when he gains the applause of those about him.'

Exercises—Straws swim upon the surface but pearls lie at the bottom.—The path of truth is a plain and safe path that of falsehood is a perplexing maze.—Modesty is the chief ornaments of youth and it has ever been esteemed a presage of rising merit.

Of the Colon.

The colon is frequently used in the three following cases.

1. When a member of a sentence is complete in itself, but followed by supplemental remark, or further illustration of the subject; as, 'Great things are performed, not by strength, but perseverance: yonder palace was raised by single stones; yet you see its height and spaciousness.' 'A brute arrives at a point of perfection, that he can never pass: in a few years he has all the accomplishments he is capable of; and, were he to live ten thousand more, would do the same thing he is at present.'

2. When a semicolon, or more than one have preceded, and a still greater pause is necessary, in order to mark the connecting or concluding sentiment; as, 'We perceive the shadow to have moved along the dial, but did not move; and it appears, that the grass has grown, though nobody ever saw it grow: so the advances we make in knowledge, as they consist of innumerable steps, are only perceivable by the distance.'

3. When an example, a quotation, or a speech is introduced; as 'The figures give us an amiable representation of the Deity, in these words: "Love." 'He was often heard to say: "I have done with the world, and am willing to leave it."

Note.—The use of the colon appears to be declining. Many late writers avoid it altogether. They regard it as a point of indefinite character, taking the place sometimes of the semicolon, and sometimes of the period; and, consequently, perpetuate us with a distinction, where there is no difference. Thus, in the examples above of the colon, in the 1st case, the period might be used without any impropriety; sentences, separated by the colon in those examples, are not more connected, nor dependent on one another, than many other sentences, which are generally separated by the period. In the 2nd case, the 'still greater pause' may be denoted equally as well by adding a dash to the semicolon, thus;—and, in the 3rd case and in all similar examples the place of the colon may be supplied by the semicolon, either with or without a dash.

Of the Period.

RULE IV.—A sentence, making in itself complete sense, requires a period at its end; as, 'Fear God.' 'Honour your parents.'

A period is not unfrequently admitted between two sentences, which are joined by a conjunction; as, 'He, who lifts himself up to the observation of the world is, of all men, the least likely to avoid censure. For he draws upon himself a thousand eyes, that will narrowly inspect him in every part.'

The period is also used after initials, and abbreviated words; as, N. B. Nota Bene; A. D. for Anno Domini; Col. for Colonel; Mr. for Mister; &c. for et cætera.

Note.—But few exercises have been given in punctuation, and those few, principally with the view to illustrate the rules and exceptions. Perhaps the best method of learning punctuation is, at the same time that the pupil is attending to parsing, by analysing sentences, resolving them into their component parts, and determining the propriety or impropriety of the punctuation, by a practical application of the rules. Of this useful and important exercise, the following may serve as a specimen.

Example.—The indulgence of harsh dispositions is the introduction to future misery.
Resolution.—This is a simple sentence, of which 'indulgence' is the subject, and

the verb. 'Harsh dispositions' is an adjunct of the subject, connected by the preposition 'of;' 'introduction' is an adjunct of the verb, and 'future misery' is an adjunct of that adjunct, connected by the preposition 'to.' These adjuncts being connected, either with not subject or the verb, in a *different manner*, the sentence is simple, and its members must be separated, according to Rule I.

Example.—'The tutor, by instruction and discipline, lays the foundation of the pupils' future honour.'

Resolution.—This is a simple sentence, because it has but one subject, 'tutor,' and one finite verb, 'lays.' 'By instruction and discipline' is an adjunct of the verb, *coming between the subject and verb*; and, therefore, separated by commas on both sides, according to Exception 1. to Rule I. The rest of the sentence may be resolved according to the first example.

The following characters are also frequently used in composition.

Of the Dash —.

The *Dash*, though often used improperly by hasty and incoherent writers, may be introduced with propriety where the sentence breaks off abruptly; where a significant pause is required; or where there is an unexpected turn in the sentiment;—as, 'If thou art he, so much respected once—but oh! how fallen! how degraded!' 'If acting conformably to the will of our creator,—if promoting the welfare of mankind around us,—if securing our own happiness,—are objects of the highest moment;—then we are called upon to cultivate and extend the great interests of religion and virtue.'—A dash, following a stop, denotes that the pause is to be greater, than if the stop were alone; and, when used by itself, requires a pause of such a length, as the sense alone can determine.

'Here lies the great—False marble, where?

'Nothing but sordid dust lies here.'

'Whatever is, is right.—This world, 'tis true,

'Was made for Cæsar—but for Titus too.'

Of the Interrogatory Point, ?

A note of *Interrogation* is used at the end of an interrogative sentence; that is, when a question is asked;—as, 'Who will accompany me? Shall we always be friends?

Questions, which a person asks himself in contemplation, ought to be terminated by points of interrogation;—as, 'Who adorned the heavens with such exquisite beauty? At whose command do the planets perform their constant revolutions?'

'To whom can riches give repute or trust,

'Content or pleasure, but the good and just?'

A point of interrogation is improper after sentences, which are not questions, but only expressions of admiration, or of some other emotion;—as, 'With what prudence does the Son of Sirach advise us, in the choice of our companions?'

A note of interrogation should not be employed in cases where it is only said, that a question has been asked, and where the words are not used as a question. 'The Cyprians asked me why I wept.' To give this sentence the interrogative form, it should be expressed thus, 'The Cyprians said to me, Why dost thou weep?'

Of the Exclamatory Point, !

The note of *Exclamation* is applied to expressions of sudden emotion, surprise, joy, grief, &c. and also to invocations or addresses;—as, 'My friend! this conduct amazes me! Bless the Lord O my soul! and forget not all his benefits!'

' Oh ! had we both our humble state maintain'd,
' And safe in peace and poverty remain'd !'

It is difficult in some cases, to distinguish between an interrogative and exclamatory sentence ; but a sentence in which any wonder or admiration is expressed, and no answer expected or implied, may be always properly terminated by a note of exclamation ;—as, ' How much vanity in the pursuits of men ! Who can sufficiently express the goodness of our Creator ! What is more amiable than virtue !'

The points of Interrogation and Exclamation mark an elevation of the voice ; and their utility appears from the following examples, in which the meaning is signified solely by the points.

' What condescension !'

' What condescension ?'

' How great was the sacrifice !'

' How great was the sacrifice ?'

Of the Parenthesis, ()

A *Parenthesis* is a clause containing some necessary information, or useful remark, introduced in the body of a sentence obliquely, and which may be omitted without injuring the grammatical construction ;—as, ' To gain a posthumous reputation is to save four or five letters (for what is a name besides ?) from oblivion. Know ye not, brethren, (for I speak to them, that know the law,) how that the law hath dominion over a man as long as he liveth ?'

' Know then this truth, (enough for man to know,)

' Virtue alone is happiness below.'

' And was the ransom paid ? It was ; and paid

' (What can exalt his bounty more ?) for thee.'

If the incidental clause is short, or perfectly coincides with the rest of the sentence, it is not proper to use the parenthetical characters. The following instances are therefore improper uses of the parenthesis. ' Speak you (who saw) his wonders in the deep. Every planet (as the Creator has made nothing in vain.) is most probably inhabited. He found them asleep again ; (for their eyes were heavy ;) neither knew they what to answer him.'

The Parenthesis generally marks a moderate depression of the voice, and may be accompanied with every point, which the sense would require, if the parenthetical characters were omitted. It ought to terminate with the same kind of stop, which the member has, that precedes it ; and to contain that stop with the parenthetical marks. We must, however except cases of interrogation and exclamation ;—as, ' While they wish to please. (and why should they not wish it ?) they disdain dishonourable means. It was represented by an analogy, (Oh, how inadequate !) which was borrowed from the religion of paganism.'

Of the Apostrophe, Caret, &c.

An *Apostrophe*, marked thus ' is used to abbreviate or shorten a word ;—as, 'tis for it is ; tho' for though ; e'en for even ; judg'd for judged. Its chief use is to show the possessive case of nouns ;—as, ' A man's property ; a woman's ornament.'

A *Caret*, marked thus ^ is placed where some word happens to be left out in writing, and which is inserted over the line. This mark is also called a circumflex, when placed over a particular vowel to denote a long syllable ;—as, ' Euphrates.'

A *Hyphen*, marked thus - is employed in connecting compound words ;—as, ' Lap-dog, tea-pot, pre-existence, self-love, to-morrow, mother-in-law.'

It is also used when a word is divided, and the former part is written or printed at the end of one line, and the latter part at the beginning of another. In this case it is placed at the end of the first line, not at the beginning of the second.

The *Acute Accent*, marked thus ' ;—as, 'Fancy.' Grave thus ^; as, 'Favour.'

In English, the Accentual marks are chiefly used in spelling-books and dictionaries, to mark the syllables, which require a particular stress of the voice in pronunciation.

The stress is laid on long and short syllables indiscriminately. In order to distinguish the one from the other, some writers of dictionaries have placed the grave on the former, and the acute on the latter, in this manner;—Minor, mineral, lively, lived, rival, river.'

The proper mark to distinguish a long syllable, is this ~;—as, 'Rösy;' and a short one this ^;—as, 'Fölly.' This last mark is called a breve.

A *Diaresis*, marked thus ¨, consists of two points placed over one of the two vowels, that would otherwise make a diphthong, and parts them into two syllables;—as, 'Creätor, coadjutor, aërial.'

A *Section*, marked thus §, is the division of a discourse, or chapter, into less parts or portions.

A *Paragraph* ¶ denotes the beginning of a new subject, or a sentence not connected with the foregoing. This character is chiefly used in the Old, and in the New Testaments.

A *Quotation* ". Two inverted commas are generally placed at the beginning of a phrase or passage, which is quoted or transcribed from the speaker or author in his own words; and two commas in their direct position, are placed at the conclusion;—as, "The proper study of mankind is man."

Crotchets or Brackets [] serve to enclose a word or sentence, which is to be explained in a note, or the explanation itself, or a word or a sentence, which is intended to supply some deficiency, or to rectify some mistake.

An *Index* or *Hand* ☞ points out a remarkable passage, or something that requires particular attention.

A *Brace* } is used in poetry at the end of a triplet, or three lines, which have the same rhyme.

Braces are also used to connect a number of words with one common term, and are introduced to prevent a repetition in writing or printing.

An *Asterisk*, or little *, directs the reader to some note in the margin, or at the bottom of the page. Two or three asterisks generally denote the omission of some letters in a word, or of some bold or indelicate expression, or some defect in the manuscript.

An *Ellipsis* — is also used, when some letters in a word, or some words in a verse are omitted; as, 'The K—g,' for 'the king.'

An *Obelisk*, which is marked thus †, and *Parallels* thus ||, together with the letters of the Alphabet, and figures are used as references to the margin, or bottom of the page.

Directions respecting the Use of Capital Letters.

It was formerly the custom to begin every noun with a capital; but as this practice was troublesome, and gave the writing or printing a crowded and confused appearance, it has been discontinued. It is, however, very proper to begin with a capital,

1. The first word of every book, chapter, letter, note, or any other piece of writing.
2. The first word after a period; and, if the two sentences are totally independent, after the note of interrogation or exclamation.

But if a number of interrogative or exclamatory sentences are thrown into one general group; or if the construction of the latter sentences depends on the former, all of them, except the first, may begin with a small letter;—as, ‘How long, ye simple ones, will ye love simplicity? and the scorners delight in their scorning? and fools hate knowledge? Alas! how different! yet how like the same!’

3. The appellations of the Deity;—as, ‘God, Jehovah, the Almighty, the Supreme Being, the Lord, Providence, the Messiah, the Holy Spirit.’

4. Proper names of persons, places, streets, mountains, rivers, ships;—as, ‘George, York, the Strand, the Alps, the Thames, the Seahorse.’

5. Adjectives derived from the proper names of places;—as, ‘Grecian, Roman, English, French, and Italian.’

6. The first word of a quotation, introduced after a semi-colon, or when it is in a direct form;—as, “Always remember this ancient maxim; Know thyself.” “Our great Lawgiver says, ‘Take up thy cross daily and follow me.’” But when a quotation is brought in obliquely after a comma, a capital is unnecessary;—as, “Solomon observes, ‘that pride goes before destruction.’”

The first word of an example may also very properly begin with a capital; as, ‘Temptation proves our virtue.’

7. Every noun and principal word in the titles of books;—as, ‘Johnson’s Dictionary of the English Language; Thomson’s Seasons; Rollin’s Ancient History.’

8. The first word of every line in poetry.

9. The pronoun, *I*, and the interjection *O*, are written in capitals;—as, ‘I write; Hear, O earth!’

Other words, besides the preceding, may begin with capitals, when they are remarkably emphatical, or the principal subject of the composition.

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

—For answers to the questions in larger type, see *The General View*; for answers in smaller type, see *The Lectures*.

OF GRAMMAR.

is Grammar?
science, what does it unfold?
many species does grammar
ist?
does universal grammar explain?
does particular grammar teach?
at are the rules, relating to any
icular language founded?
is English grammar?

To which species does English gram-
mar belong, universal or particular?
What is to be considered as the stand-
ard of the English language?
Into how many parts is English gram-
mar divided?
What are they called?
Of what does each part treat?

PART I.—ORTHOGRAPHY.

LECTURE I.

oes the term, *orthography* signify?
oes this part of grammar teach us?
is a letter?
any letters are there in the Eng-
language?
are these letters, taken together,
d?
tters in the English alphabet are
fluous?
do the letters in the alphabet
esent?
s an articulate sound?
nglish Alphabet perfect?
t respects is it imperfect?
re letters divided?
is a vowel?
etters are vowels?
e they called *vowels*?
any simple vowel sounds are there
English language?
example of long *a*; of short *a*; of
le *a*; of broad *a*.
example of long *e*; of short *e*.
example of long *i*; of short *i*.
example of long *o*; of short *o*; of
le *o*.
n example of long *u*; of short *u*;
ddle *u*.
re *w* and *y* vowels?
example of *w* and *y*, as vowels?
sed as vowels, why do not *w* and *y*
ase the number of vowel sounds?
s a consonant?
any and what letters are conso-
s?
e these letters called *consonants*?
the number of consonant sounds in
sh?

Give an example of *b*; of *d*; of *f*; of *g*; of
g; of *h*; of *k*; of *l*; of *m*; of *n*; of *p*;
of *r*; of *s*; of *x*; of *t*; of *w*; of *y*; of *ng*;
of *sh*; of *th* sharp; of *th* flat; of *sh*.
Is a consonant a *simple* or a *complex* sound?
What is the distinction between the *nature*
and the *name* of a consonant?
When are *w* and *y* consonants?
Give an example of them as such?
From what does it appear that they are
consonants, when used as initials?
How are consonants divided?
What is a mute?
What a semi-vowel?
Which of the semi-vowels are called
liquids?
Why are they so called?
What is a diphthong?
What is a proper diphthong?
What is an improper diphthong?
From what does a diphthong derive its
name?
What does it properly denote?
What is a triphthong?
How many sounds has a triphthong?

LECTURE II.

How many and what sounds has the letter
A?
How is the diphthong *au*, generally sound-
ed? How *ae*? How *ai*? How *au*? What
exceptions to this sound of *au*?
How many sounds has *B*?
In what words is it silent?
How many sounds has *C*?
When is it sounded like *k*?
When soft like *s*? When like *sh*?
In what words is *C* mute?
What is the practice of writers with respect
to ending a word with *C*?

How is *ch* commonly sounded? How in words derived from the Greek?
 How in those from the French? How in *arch* before a vowel? How in *arch* before a consonant?
 What sounds has *D*?
 How many sounds has *E*?
 How is the diphthong, *ea*, generally sounded?
 How *ea*? *ei*? *eo*? *ew*?
 What sounds has *F*?
 What sounds has *G*? When is *G* hard? when soft? when mute?
 What sounds has *H*?
 What sounds has *I*? How is the diphthong *ie*, sounded? how *is*? how *ieu*?
 How is *J* sounded?
 What sounds has *K*? when is it silent?
 What sound has *L*? In what words is it mute? How is *le* pronounced at the end of words?
 What sounds has *M*?
 What sounds has *N*? when is *N* mute? how must the participial *ing* be pronounced?
 How is *O* sounded? how *oa*? *oe*? *oi*? *oo*? *ou*? *ow*?
 What sounds has *P*? when is it mute? how is *ph* sounded?
 How is *Qu* sounded?
 What sounds has *R*? how is *re*, at the end of words, pronounced?
 What sounds has *S*? when has it a sharp sound? when has it the sound of *x*? when is it mute?

How is *T* generally sounded? how *ti*, when the accent precedes? when pronounced like simple *t*?
 What sounds has *U*?
 How is *V* sounded?
 What sounds has *W*, when a Consonant?
 What sounds has *X*?
 What sound has *Y*, when a consonant?
 What sound has *Z*?

LECTURE III.

What is a syllable?
 What is spelling?
 What is considered as the best standard orthography in the English language?
 What are words?
 What are ideas?
 Have words in general any peculiar to express the ideas signified by them? Are there any exceptions to this rule? Give an example of such exceptions. By what rule, then, are we to be directed in the use of words, as the signs of ideas?
 What are words of one syllable?
 Of two syllables?
 Of three syllables?
 Of four or more syllables?
 How are words divided?
 What is a primitive word?
 What a derivative?

PART II.—ETYMOLOGY.

Lecture I.—Introductory.

What does the word, *Etymology*, signify?
 Of what does *Etymology* treat?
 What does it comprehend?
 In a philosophical point of view, what is *Etymology* and of what does it treat?
 What is the number of *real* words in the English language?
 From what do words derive their meaning?
 What necessary connexion is there between words and ideas?
 If we were to contrive a new language, how might we proceed in the application of articulate sounds, as the signs of ideas?
 But where a language is already formed, in what sense must they, who speak it, use the words?
 Why are we under obligations to use words in the customary sense?
 Into how many sorts, or *parts of speech*, are words divided?
 What are these parts of speech called?
 Which are the only parts of speech essentially necessary?
 Why are these two alone indispensably requisite?
 How may the other parts of speech be regarded?
 How is the *interjection* to be considered?

Lecture II.—Of the Articles

What is an article?
 How many articles are there?
 Why are these called *articles*?
 What is a called? Why?
 When does a become *an*?
 Why is a converted into *an*, when the following word begins with a vowel or silent *h*?
 In what instances must *a* be used before a vowel?
 Why must *a*, instead of *an*, be used in some instances?
 When must *an* be used before *h*, when is *not* silent?
 What is the signification of the article *the*?
 What is *the* called? Why?
 What is the signification of the article *as* derived from the Anglo-Saxon?
 In what sense is a noun to be taken without any article before it?
 Before what nouns is the article generally omitted?
 Are the articles ever prefixed to proper nouns? Why?
 Are there any exceptions to this rule? Give examples of such exceptions, a reason of them?
 Is the indefinite article prefixed to nouns the singular or in the plural number?

generally formed ?

When the singular ends in *x*, *ch* soft, *sh*, *s*, or *ss*, how is the plural formed ? Give an example in each.

When the singular ends in *ch* hard, how is the plural formed ? Give an example.

What nouns are used only in the singular ? What, only in the plural ?

What are the same in both numbers ?

When the singular ends in *o*, how is the plural formed ?

How, when it ends in *f*, or *fe* ?

How, when it ends in *y* ?

What nouns become plural by changing of the singular number into *e* ? *oo* into *er* ?

What are the plurals of *ox* and *child* ? what is the plural of *brother* ?

Of what number are the nouns, *pains*, *riches*, *arms*, *mathematics*, &c.

Of what number is *news* ? Of what means ?

When is *means* to be employed as singular ? When, as plural ?

Of what number are *antipodes*, *credenda*, &c.

Of what, *hiatus*, *apparatus*, &c. Why ?

What is *person* ?

How many persons have nouns ?

When is a noun in the *first* person ? When in the *second* ? When in the *third* ?

How is the person of nouns known or determined ?

In what person are nouns generally used ? Why ?

Why are nouns seldom used in the first and second person ?

What does the first person denote ?

What, the second ? What the third ?

What is *case* ?

How many cases have nouns ?

What does the nominative case denote ?

Why is this case called *nominative* ?

What does the possessive case denote ?

Why is it called *possessive* ?

By what other name is it sometimes called ?

How is the possessive case generally formed ?

How, when the plural terminates in *s* ?

How, when the singular ends in *ss* ?

What was, formerly, the sign of the possessive case in English ?

In modern use, what does the apostrophe denote ?

Why is the *s* sometimes omitted in forming the possessive case ?

When the possessor consists of several terms, to which is the *possessive* sign to be added ?

What does the objective case denote ?

Why is it called *objective* ?

Does the objective case of nouns vary in form from the nominative ?

How then is its subordinate character indicated ?

Decline the nouns, *man*, and *mother* ?

Lecture V.—Of Pronouns.

What is a pronoun ?

What is the meaning of the word, *pronoun* ?

Why are pronouns used instead of nouns ?

What, besides nouns, is the pronoun sometimes used to represent ?

Of how many kinds are pronouns ?

What are personal pronouns ?

Why are they called *personal* pronouns ?

How many personal pronouns are there ?

For what does the pronoun of the first person stand ?

Decline the first person.

For what does the second personal pronoun stand ?

Decline the second person.

For what does the third personal pronoun stand ?

Decline the third person.

How does the *first* personal pronoun denote the immediate speaker ?

How does the *second* denote the party addressed ?

How does the *third* designate an individual ?

What is the meaning of the pronouns, *he*, *she*, *it* ?

Why is the distinction of gender limited to the third person ?

What are relative pronouns ?

Why are they called *relative* ?

Of what do they imply the meaning ?

What is *what* ?

How is *who* applied ? How, *which* ?

How *that* ?

Of what number is *who* ? How is it declined ?

Of what number are *which*, *that*, and *what* ?

When used in asking questions, what are *who*, *which*, and *what* ?

How is *which* declined ?

When is *that* a relative pronoun ? When, a demonstrative pronoun ? When, a conjunction ?

To what do *who*, *which*, and *that* relate, when used interrogatively ?

What are adjective pronouns ?

Why are they called *adjective* ?

Into how many sorts are they divided ?

What are the *possessive* ?

Give some examples, distinguishing the possessive pronouns from the possessive cases of their respective personal pronouns.

What do the words, *own* and *self*, imply or express, when added to pronouns ?

What are the *distributive* pronouns ?

To what does *each*, relate ? To what, *every* ?

What, *either*? What does *neither* port?
 the *demonstrative* pronouns? does *this* refer? To what *that*?
 the *definite* pronouns? do *one* sometimes mean?
Others used? is *another* composed? number is *none* used?

Lecture VI.—Of Verbs.

What is a verb?
 this part of speech called the

What does a verb differ from a noun?
 that circumstance, which, when
 to a noun, makes it a verb?
 do verbs appear to have been
 ally?

Are verbs divided?
 Are active verbs?
 a verb called active? Give an ex-

amples, "John walks, Thomas
 why are *walks* and *runs* called ac-

Are active verbs divided?
 Are transitive verbs?
 the meaning of *transitive*?
 Are intransitive verbs?
 the meaning of *intransitive*?
 Are any transitive verbs which do
 express a transition of action from
 object to the object?
 Are *active* verbs distinguished from
 transitive?
 Are verbs which are used both transi-

and intransitively?
 Known of which kind they are?
 Why intransitive verbs become com-

transitive verbs?
 Is a *passive* verb?
 a verb called passive? Give an

ple.
 examples, "The man was killed, the
 was beaten," why are *was killed* and
was beaten called passive verbs?

What is the word *passive*, derived?
 Does *passive* signify as applied to
 ?

Are passive verbs formed?
 Are verbs formed from transitive or
 intransitive verbs? Why?

Is a *neuter* verb?
 a verb called neuter? Give an ex-

amples, "He is, we sleep, they
 ," why are the verbs called *neuter*?
 many and what distinctions be-

to the verbs?
 is Mood?
 the meaning of the word, *mood*, as
 ed to verbs?

How many and what moods have
 verbs?

How does the imperative mood express
 an action?

Why is it called *imperative*?

Conjugate the verb, *walk*, in the im-

perative mood?
 How does the indicative mood express

an action?

Why is it called *indicative*?

In what moods are questions asked?

Conjugate the verb, *walk*, through the

indicative mood?
 How does the subjunctive mood ex-

press an action?

Why is it called *subjunctive*?

Is the subjunctive sentence always added at
 the end of the other?

Is the conjunction always expressed?

In what respect does the first form of the
 subjunctive mood differ from the indica-

tive mood?
 In what respect does the second form differ

from the first?
 To what tense of verbs generally is the vari-

ed form of the subjunctive mood limited?
 In what tenses of the verb *be*, and of pas-

sive verbs is the varied form used?
 Conjugate the verb *walk*, in the sub-

conjunctive mood?
 What does the potential mood express?

Why is it called *potential*?

Conjugate the verb *walk*, in the poten-

tial mood?
 What does the infinitive mood ex-

press?

Why is it called *infinitive*?

Conjugate the verb *walk*, in the infi-

nitive mood?
 What is tense? How many tenses has

the verb?
 What are the general divisions of time?

What are those tenses which are used
 to mark the time of the verb more

accurately?
 Which of these are called simple tenses?

Which compound?
 What does the present tense denote?

How is this tense formed in the poten-

tial mood? How in the infinitive?

What does it likewise express?

How is it used when preceded by the words,
when, before, after, &c.?

For what tense is it sometimes used in ani-

minated historical discussions?
 What does the imperfect tense denote?

How is this tense generally formed in
 the indicative mood? How in the

subjunctive? How in the poten-

tial?

Why is it called imperfect?

What does the perfect tense denote?

How is it formed in the indicative mood? How in the subjunctive?

How in the potential? How in the infinitive?

Why is it called perfect?

How does this tense denote a past event differently from the imperfect?

When the time of a past event is specified as happening prior to the present time, which of these tenses is to be used?

Which must be employed, when we speak of a past event as happening in the day, year, or age, in which we mention it?

Give an example of the proper use of each of these tenses.

How is the perfect tense often used when preceded by *when*, *after*, &c.

What does the pluperfect tense denote?

Why is it called pluperfect?

How is it formed in the indicative mood? How in the subjunctive? Potential?

What does the first future tense denote? How is it formed in the indicative mood? How in the subjunctive?

How is the simple future expressed? How is the future of determination expressed?

Give an example of each in the verb, *walk*.

What does the second future tense denote? How is it formed in the indicative mood? How in the subjunctive?

What is the difference between the definite and the indefinite tenses?

How are the definite tenses formed? Give an example in each of the six tenses?

How many numbers and persons belong to verbs?

What is meant by number and person, as applied to verbs?

Of what are these inflections supposed to consist in ancient languages?

Of what use are they in English?

What is the conjugation of a verb?

What is the conjugation of an active verb styled? What, that of a passive verb?

What are auxiliary verbs?

What are *have*, *be*, *will*, and *do*, when unconnected with a principal verb?

How is the auxiliary, *do*, varied? *be* have? *shall*? *will*? *may*? *can*?

Explain the force and meaning of each of these auxiliaries.

What are regular verbs? What, irregular? What defective?

What are verbs called, which are defective with respect to persons?

Are there any impersonal verbs in English?

What is a participle?

How does the participle participate of the properties of a verb? How, those of an adjective?

How many participles are there?

How is the present distinguished from the perfect? How is it distinguished from the adjective? Give an example of each of these distinctions.

Give an example of a participle used as a noun.

What is the whole number of verbs in the English language?

Lecture VII.—Of Conjunctions.

What is a conjunction?

Why is this part of speech called the conjunction?

How are conjunctions divided?

How is the copulative conjunction used?

How, the disjunctive?

How are two nouns or pronouns connected by a copulative conjunction to be considered?

How, when connected by a disjunctive?

Give an example of a conjunction used to connect sentences.

Give an example of a conjunction connecting words only.

How do conjunctions connect words differently from prepositions?

What conjunctions are exclusively appropriated to the coupling of sentences?

What, to coupling the members of a sentence?

What, are equally adapted to both uses? Give an example of *then* used as a conjunction.

Why is *then* a conjunction in that case?

How do conjunctions connect sentences differently from relative pronouns?

Lecture VIII.—Of Adverbs.

What is an adverb?

Why is it so called?

How are adverbs compared?

What do adverbs denote, when added to verbs?

What, when added to adjectives and other adverbs?

For what purpose were adverbs originally contrived? Give an example.

Give an example of *then*, used as an adverb.

Why is *then* an adverb in that case?

When several words are used together as an adverb, what are they called?

Of what are the adverbs *aside*, *ashore*, &c. composed.

What are *when*, *where*, &c. properly called? Why?

What necessity is there for adverbs of time?

Lecture IX.—Of Prepositions.

What are prepositions?

what sort of words are they ?
 e they called *prepositions* ?
 es a preposition show a relation be-
 words ?
 example of such use of the prepo-
 is, *from* and *to*.
 elations do prepositions appear to
 denoted, in their original use ?
 e they now used ?
 preposition is compounded with a
 what is the effect of such composi-
 the force and import of *for*, *by* and
 the difference of signification be-
 the prepositions, *in* and *into*.
Lecture X.—Of Interjections.
 are interjections ?
 re they so called ?
 are interjections the signs ?
 oes a too frequent use of interjec-
 indicate ?

Of Derivation.

e words derived from one another ?
 e nouns derived from verbs ?
 e verbs derived from nouns ?
 hat and how are adjectives, denot-
 ently, derived ?
 hat and how, those denoting the

matter out of which any thing is made ?
 From what and how, those denoting abun-
 dance ?
 From what and how, those denoting plen-
 ty but with some kind of diminution ?
 From what and how, those denoting want ?
 From what and how, those denoting like-
 ness ?
 How are adjectives derived from other ad-
 jectives ?
 What is the meaning of *ish*, when added to
 adjectives ? What, when added to nouns ?
 How are adjectives derived from verbs ?
 How are nouns derived from adjectives ?
 How, adverbs from adjectives ?
 What is the signification of nouns ending in
hood ?
 What, of those ending in *ship* ?
 What, of those ending in *ery* ?
 What, of those ending in *wick*, *rick*, and
dom ?
 What, of those ending in *tan* ?
 What, of those ending in *ard* ?
 How are diminutives formed ?
 What are the Latin prepositions used in
 the composition of English words ?
 What do those prepositions severally sig-
 nify ?
 The same of the Greek ?
 What do the words, *and*, *about*, *among*, &c.
 signify, when traced to their Saxon ori-
 gin ?

PART III.—SYNTAX.

Lecture I.—Introductory.

at does Syntax treat ?
 s the office of Syntax ?
 s Syntax divided ?
 is Concord ? What is Govern-
 t ?
 n example illustrating each of
 ese parts of Syntax.
 s a sentence ?
 s the difference between simple and
 ound sentences ?
 e example of a simple sentence. Of
 ound sentence.
 is a phrase ? Give an exam-

What is the rule for repeating the article
 before two words in the same construc-
 tion ?
 Are the articles frequently omitted in con-
 versation, where they should be inserted
 in writing ?
 What is the effect of repeating the definite
 article before a second adjective, applied
 to the same generic name as the former ?

Lecture III.—Of Adjectives.

are the principal parts of a sen-
 e ?
 s the subject ? The attribute ?
 object ?
Lecture II.—Of the Articles.
 rule do you give, in parsing the
 les ?
 h number does the indefinite article
 with nouns ?
 h the definite ?
 few instances of the misapplication
 articles.
 istinction of the sense is sometimes
 y the use or omission of the inde-
 article ?

What is the rule for adjectives ?
 In what manner do adjectives agree with
 nouns ?
 Why does not a variation of gender, &c.
 in the noun require a correspondent va-
 riation in the adjective ?
 How must numeral adjectives be associated
 with nouns ?
 Give a few examples of the misapplication
 of adjectives as adverbs.
 When should *ly* be added to the word ex-
 creding ?
 How is the pronoun *such* often misapplied ?
 Give a few examples of adverbs improper-
 ly used as adjectives ?
 What is the general rule for deciding, in
 particular constructions, whether an ad-
 jective or an adverb ought to be used ?
 Give an example illustrating this rule ?
 Does the verb, *be*, generally require the
 word immediately connected with it to
 be an adjective or an adverb ?
 When this verb can be substituted for any

other without varying the sense, does that verb also require an adjective ?
 What adjectives do not properly admit of the superlative or comparative form superadded ?
 In what other way are the degrees of comparison often misapplied ?

Lecture IV.—Of Nouns.

What is the rule respecting the agreement of nouns in the same case ?
 When are nouns said to be in apposition ?
 Are nouns sometimes set in apposition to sentences or clauses ?
 Are pronouns ever set in apposition to preceding nouns ?
 What is the rule respecting the government of nouns in the possessive case ?
 When is the preposition *of*, joined to a noun equivalent to the possessive case ?
 Are pronouns ever governed in the possessive case by nouns ?
 What should the pronoun, *his*, be considered when detached from its noun ?
 When a noun in the possessive case stands alone, what governs it ?
 When several nouns in the possessive case come together, to which is the possessive sign to be annexed ?
 When is the additional *s* omitted in poetry ? when, in prose ? why ?
 When may the double possessive be used ?

Lecture V.—Of Pronouns.

In what case must a noun or pronoun be, when it is the subject of a verb ?
 Give an example of the violation of this rule.
 When is the relative pronoun the subject of the verb ?
 What is the construction of the relative when a nominative intervenes between it and the verb ?
 When the relative is used interrogatively, in what case must the noun or pronoun be, which contains the answer ?
 When is the nominative case placed after the verb or auxiliary ?
 In what case is the noun or pronoun, when an address is made ?
 Why are nouns and pronouns, thus circumstanced, said to be in the nominative case independent ?
 In what respects do pronouns agree with their antecedents and the nouns for which they stand ?
 Give some examples of the violation of this rule ?
 When a pronoun stands for two or more nouns singular, connected by a *copulative* conjunction, in which number must it be ?

Are *which* and *what* ever used as adjective pronouns ? Give an example.

How is *what* frequently used ?

When the relative is preceded by two antecedents of different persons, with which may it agree ?

In what case is a noun or pronoun, when joined with a participle and standing independent on the rest of the sentence ?

In what respect do adjective pronouns agree with their nouns ?

What exceptions to this rule ?

What distinction between *this* and *that*, when used in reference to antecedent nouns ?

Lecture VI.—Of Verbs.

In what respects does the verb agree with its nominative case ?

Give an example of the violation of this rule.

Is a verb ever used correctly, in a sentence without a nominative case expressed or implied ?

In the sentence, "Whereof there needs no account," what is the nominative case to the verb, *needs* ?

When a verb comes between two nouns, either of which may be the subject, with which may it agree ?

When a verb agrees with two or more nouns, &c. singular, connected by a *copulative* conjunction, in which number must the verb be put ?

Give an example of the violation of this rule.

What exceptions are there to this rule ?

Does this rule apply also to nouns and pronouns, similarly situated ?

If the singular nouns and pronouns be of different persons, what person takes the preference ?

Give an example of such preference.

When a verb agrees with two or more nouns, singular, connected by a *disjunctive* conjunction, in which number must the verb be put ?

Give some examples of the violation of this rule.

When singular nouns of different persons are disjunctively connected, with which person must the verb agree ?

Give an example of such agreement.

When a disjunctive occurs between a singular noun and a plural one, with which must the verb agree ?

Give an example of such agreement.

What is the rule respecting the agreement of a verb with a noun of multitude ?

Give some examples illustrating this rule.

In which number must the verb be put, when it agrees with the infinitive mood or part of a sentence ?

n the singular? *When* in the plural? case do transitive verbs govern? example of the violation of this

phrases, "to run a race, to walk a," are the verbs, *run* and *walk*, to considered as transitive or intransi-

phrase, "he lay an hour in great re," how do you parse the noun,

re the present tense and perfect par- e of the verb, *lay*, in that phrase? sentence or phrase stands as the ob- fa transitive verb, what is its term-

sitive verbs ever govern two objec- ases? Give an example.

ay the infinitive mood be gov- d?

the preposition, *to*, properly omit- fore verbs in the infinitive mood? overns the infinitive mood in the e "an object so high *as to be* invis-

n the phrase "he desired nothing *than to know* his own imperfec- "

example of the infinitive mood ab-

ase have neuter and intransi- verbs *after* them?

example of the violation of this

ase have passive verbs of nam- after them?

the phrase, "They were offered a n."

at conjunctions must the indica- mood be used?

at, the subjunctive?

h form of the subjunctive mood are njunctions, *if, though, unless, &c.* ally followed?

, these conjunctions admit of the tive termination?

orm do *lest* and *that*, annexed to a and preceding, require?

es *if* with *but* following it, require ried form?

e indicative form?

rect to use both forms after the conjunction in the same sentence?

example of this inaccuracy.

hat have almost all of the irregu- in the construction of any lan- arisen?

varied form of the subjunctive probably arisen from the ellipsis e words?

this origin by examples.

the general rule for using the vari- n of the subjunctive mood in the : tense?

What further may this rule be extended to assert?

What advantage might be expected from the observance of this rule?

What verbs are properly varied in the im- perfect tense of the subjunctive mood?

What is the rule for using the varied form of this tense?

What remarks are made with respect to va- rying the compound tenses of the sub- junctive mood?

What remarks respecting the auxiliaries of the potential mood, when applied to the subjunctive?

What is the general rule for using tenses and phrases which, in point of time, re- late to each other.

Explain this rule by examples.

Which tense of the infinitive mood must be used after verbs expressive of *hope, desire* &c.?

Give an example of the violation of this rule.

What is the general rule respecting the ten- ses of the infinitive?

What is the difference of signification be- tween the phrases, "I rejoiced *to see* my friend," and "I rejoiced *to have seen* my friend?"

In relating things that were formerly expres- sed by another person, when must the present tense be used?

When, the past tense?

With what do participles agree?

Is the present participle ever used without an obvious reference to any noun or pronoun?

Give an example of such use.

What case have the participles of neuter and passive verbs sometimes after them?

What government have participles?

Give an example of a participle used as a noun in the nominative case.

Give an example in the objective case.

Give an example of a participle used both as a noun and a verb in the same phrase.

What is the rule respecting the present par- ticiple with an article before it?

Give an example of the violation of this rule, in the use both of the definite and the indefinite article.

Lecture VII.—Of Conjunctions.

What is the rule with respect to con- junctions connecting cases and moods?

Give an example of erroneous construction under this rule.

When conjunctions are made to connect different moods and tenses, what must be observed respecting the nominative?

What is the rule respecting a noun or pronoun following *than* or *as*, after a com- parison?

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RECOMENDATIONS.



The following notices of the minor abridgment of this work, are from the reverend clergy and other literary gentlemen in the city of Troy, (N. Y.) where that abridgment was printed in the autumn of 1821, and where it has since been adopted in most of the schools.

From the Rev. Dr. Coe, Pastor of the Presbyterian Church, in the city of Troy.

Having perused Murray's English Grammar Simplified by Fisk, and believing it to be an improvement in the method of teaching and acquiring the English Language with facility and despatch; it is hereby recommended to our schools and the public, as a valuable acquisition to the elementary literature of our rising country.

Troy, November 13, 1821.

JONAS COE.

From the Rev. Mr. Sommers, Pastor of the Baptist Church in Troy.

Having examined Mr. Fisk's modified abridgment of Lindley Murray's English Grammar, I feel pleasure in expressing my opinion, that in several respects it is an improvement of the original plan, and merits the patronage of all those who are desirous to promote the mental acquisitions of the rising generation. I consider Mr. Fisk peculiarly happy in his arrangement and philosophical explanation of the verbs, and he is entitled to our thanks for his brief and improved system of punctuation; by both of which he has simplified many of the obscurities of former grammars, and in part redeemed the art of communication from the perplexities in which it has long been involved. His plan may be defined, a praxis of reasoning, or generalized system of practical logic, by the aid of which both labour and time are saved in attaining a correct knowledge of our language, and its syntactical applications; and I doubt not, that the proposed mode of instruction will be viewed as auspicious to the advancement of science, by every person acquainted with the connexion which subsists between a perspicuous exemplification of the philosophy of language, and success in the business of teaching. Many men of extensive learning and profound judgment have published English Grammars; but it is a subject of deep regret, that we have had no fixed standard, by which to determine the fundamental principles of our language; as most of the authors alluded to, have differed from each other in many things; and some, even in relation to the parts of speech, the tenses of the verb, and the cases of nouns. It is a duty which every man of independent mind owes to himself and to posterity, to abandon the prejudices imposed by habit, and test by actual experiment every rational effort to render those systems consistent with the nature of things, and to illustrate the necessity of founding grammar on the basis of the mind; by this means the principal difficulties of the instructor will be removed, and the learner treated as a rational being even in his first stages of scientific attainments.

Troy, November 19, 1821.

CHARLES G. SOMERS, A. M.

From the Rev. Mr. Griffin, Pastor of the Methodist Church in Troy.

Troy, November 19, 1821.

SIR—Having examined the work, published by you entitled "Murray's Grammar Simplified," I highly approve of the plan, and think it a very valuable publication, well calculated to assist young students in the acquisition of this important science; and I recommend it to all teachers and students accordingly.

ALLEN FISK, Esq.

B. GRIFFIN.

From the Rev. Mr. Butler, Pastor of the Episcopal Church in the same place.

I have examined Mr. Fisk's Simplification of Murray's English Grammar, and think his arrangement ingenious and useful—peculiarly calculated to aid the teacher and to lead the learner on in an agreeable manner, to a correct understanding of grammar in general, and of the English in particular. I therefore recommend the adoption of it into schools.

Troy, November 24, 1821.

DAVID BUTLER.

From Gen. Marcy, Recorder of Troy.

Troy, November 24, 1821.

SIR—I have examined the “English Grammar Simplified” and think the work has a just claim to patronage, chiefly on account of the improvement it introduces in teaching the highly useful art on which it treats. Making a practical use of the first elementary principles of grammar as soon as they are learned, must in my opinion, greatly facilitate its acquisition and at the same time relieve the mind of the pupil from those arduous and painful exertions of the memory which excite disgust, and sometimes lead to fatal discouragement. I indulge a hope that your work, and the improved method of teaching grammar exemplified in it, may be generally introduced into schools; for I confidently believe that if such should be the case, experience will demonstrate that a knowledge of this branch of learning will be sooner and more easily acquired than by pursuing the old method. I am with sentiments of respect, yours, &c.

ALLEN FISK, Esq.

WILLIAM L. MARCY.

From Judge Buel.

Troy, November 26, 1821.

SIR—I have examined your “Murray’s English Grammar Simplified” with as much attention as my time allowed. I am pleased with the plan, and as far as I can judge, the arrangement is calculated to facilitate the acquisition of grammatical knowledge. The learner will be taught to apply the rules and definitions as he progresses; which I think a considerable improvement. You have done wisely in adopting Murray’s grammar as the basis of yours. Improvement in grammar, rather than innovation, is to be desired; and I think you have made an important improvement in your arrangement.

I am respectfully, yours &c.

ALLEN FISK, Esq.

DAVID BUEL, Junr.

From Stephen Ross, Esq.

MR. FISK,—I have examined your “English Grammar Simplified,” and am fully satisfied, that it is an improvement of the standard work of Mr. Murray. Your arrangement and proposed method of instruction are eminently calculated to facilitate the study of English grammar by relieving the student from the painful task of committing to memory what he does not understand, and by teaching him the use and application of the rules and definitions as he progresses. I therefore cheerfully concur in recommending your work to the patronage of the public and the use of schools. Yours &c.

Troy, November 26, 1821.

STEPHEN ROSS.

From Judge Paine.

Troy, December 18, 1821.

SIR—I have examined, with all the attention, which my professional engagements would admit, the copy of Murray’s English Grammar Simplified; and I have no doubt, that it will prove a valuable and useful book for the youth of our country, in obtaining a correct knowledge of the English language. Indeed, sir, I consider that this production of yours, will be as useful to people in acquiring a knowledge of English grammar, as the most successful labour-saving machine has proved, in the business of agriculture, or in manufacturing; and I hope there may be such a call for it, as will compensate you for your time and expense in compiling the same. Yours, &c.

ALLEN FISK, Esq.

AMASA PAINE.

The following extract from the Statesman is from the pen of N. H. Carter, Esq. who was lately a professor of the learned languages in Dartmouth College, and who is eminently distinguished as a scholar and a critic.

From the New-York Statesman, November 20, 1821.

A new Treatise on Grammar, by ALLEN FISK, Esq. of Troy. This work is entitled “Murray’s English Grammar Simplified—designed to facilitate the study of the English language.” We have perused this work with a high degree of satisfaction, both on account of its intrinsic merits, and as being the production of a gentleman, with whom we have had the pleasure of an acquaintance for many years. Mr. Fisk’s object in publishing this treatise, is nearly the same with that of Mr. Ingersoll, whose work we took occasion to notice a few months since. It is remarkable, that on some points they exactly coincide, without any previous knowledge of each other’s plan; and the remarks we made

on Mr. Ingersoll's work are in a great measure applicable to that of Mr. Fisk. Both are strictly philosophical treatises, founded upon a comprehensive view of the subject and calculated in an eminent degree to facilitate the acquisition of an important branch of education, by removing the obstructions which retard the progress of the pupil. In his introduction Mr. F. declares himself to be "an enemy to speculative innovation;" and in the body of the work, we have not been able to discover a departure from this principle. An admirer of Mr. Murray, he has merely laboured to improve the standard work of that author by removing some of the lumber with which it is encumbered, by adapting it to the comprehension of juvenile minds, and by relieving the student from the irksome and unprofitable task of committing to memory what he does not understand. The author intimates, that his treatise is a mere precursor of a larger work on the same subject, and that he intends hereafter to extend his system to the learned languages.

The following notice is from Solomon Southwick, Esq. editor of the Ploughboy.

Albany, December 5, 1821.

I have examined "Murray's English Grammar simplified" by Allen Fisk, Esq. and have no hesitation in recommending it for the use of schools, in concurrence with the literary gentlemen who have already pronounced upon its merits.

S. SOUTHWICK, *one of the Regents of the University of N. Y.*

Additional Recommendations.

The following notices from two of the most respectable public journals in the city of New-York, respect *Adam's Latin Grammar Simplified*; but as the plan of arrangement and the method of instruction are essentially the same in that work, as in this, the remarks of those editors, in so far as they relate to arrangement and design, apply equally to both.

From the *New-York Spectator*.

Adam's Latin Grammar Simplified—By Allen Fisk.—This work contains the substance of Dr. Adam's grammar, (omitting that part which refers to the English tongue) and an introduction of about sixty pages by Mr. Fisk, the object of which is to render Dr. Adam's grammar more simple and easy to beginners. This introduction is novel in its nature, and bears the marks of skill and judgment. The student commences parsing, and applies the rules before he begins the task of committing them to memory, so that when he begins to learn them by heart he understands them. The author has exhibited at one view the regular declensions of substantives, of adjectives, pronouns and the conjugation of verbs in separate maps: this, as is justly observed in the preface, "is rendering the eye subservient to the memory." The plan of putting the rules in the margin, and directly along side the sentences for parsing, is excellent, and the repetition of the rules for several pages successively, is well calculated to make a lasting impression on the memory. We have no doubt that this work will be of great service to beginners, and that it deserves liberal patronage.

From the *New-York Statesman*.

Latin Grammar.—Mr. Starr of this city has lately published a new work, entitled *Adam's Latin Grammar Simplified*—by ALLEN FISK, Esq. We have examined it with some attention, and entertain a very favorable opinion both of the plan and execution. The only innovation which the author has attempted, is merely a different arrangement of the materials, contained in the excellent treatise of Mr. Adam, which has been approved and adopted by most of the schools and colleges in this country. His object was to relieve the pupil from the ungrateful and irksome task of learning to repeat by rote a string of words and sentences, which he did not comprehend, and to render both the *understanding* and the *eye subservient to the memory*—or in other words, to apply the same principles to the study of language, which are applied in the study of geography. With this view he has presented on the same page, which is a large octavo, examples of the variations of the parts of speech, the appropriate rules in syntax, and exercises in parsing, which he not improperly calls a *map* of the language. It is justly remarked in the preface, that, exclusive of the improvements above mentioned, and considered merely as a book of reference, this work is indisputably superior to any preceding edition of Adam's Latin Grammar, on account of its typographical neatness and accuracy: and that the *Exercise* and *Latin Extracts*, contained in the Introduction, will supersede the necessity of purchasing and putting into the hands of boys, larger and more expensive books. We believe parents, instructors, and students will find this publication well worthy of their attention.

The following certificate is from J. V. N. Yates, Esq. Secretary of State, and ex officio Superintendent of Common Schools.

I have examined Murray's English Grammar Simplified, by Mr. Allen Fisk, and I consider it a valuable work and certainly an improvement of Murray in several particulars. As it is however in the contemplation of a few literary gentlemen to issue from the press in a short time a work to be entitled "*The New-York Common School Instructor*," comprising Grammar, Geography, Arithmetic, Surveying, History, &c. &c. in one volume, I cannot now determine whether the last mentioned work as well on account of Economy in the purchase of school books, as on account of its intrinsic merit, will tend to supersede the use of all others or not. In the event of that work not meeting the character proposed, I have no hesitation in pronouncing Mr. Fisk's work the best in use, for our schools. Albany, June 13, 1822.

J. V. N. YATES.

The following notice, from the pen of Mr. Bennett, a teacher of the first respectability in the city of Troy, of more than twenty years' experience, and who has used the *Murray's Grammar* in its abridgement of this work, for several months, in his school, deserves particular attention as being founded upon actual experiment.

Troy, June 20th, 1822.

SIR—I have examined with some attention, and with much satisfaction, your "*Murray's Grammar Simplified*." With a very few unimportant exceptions, it demands and receives my entire approbation. There is, perhaps, no other book extant, on the subject of Grammar, which contains, in so small a compass, so much valuable instruction. I am aware that this is saying much, but not more, I think, than is fairly warranted. Your arrangement of the preparatory lessons in the "*general view of Etymology and Syntax*," is admirably calculated to facilitate the acquisition of a general, and by no means superficial knowledge of the leading principles of Grammar. This assertion is not made unadvisedly, nor is it designed as a mere "puff." Its accuracy rests on the infallible test of Experience. Having used, in my school, your epitomised edition of "*Murray's Grammar Simplified*," for about three or four months, I have found the progress of the scholars, especially in the lower classes, to be incomparably more rapid and satisfactory, than I have ever witnessed by pursuing any former method of instruction. What used to be considered an irksome task, is now pursued with alacrity and pleasure. The scholar feels his own strength, and appears to be willing, and even anxious to improve it.

In considering the advantages of this edition of Murray's Grammar, I ought not to overlook that of having the Grammar and "exercises" both in one book. The printing of the examples of erroneous orthography and false syntax immediately after the respective rules, is the best of all possible arrangements. As you well remark, in your preface, "this arrangement, besides reducing the price of the work, brings its kindred parts together, and renders it more convenient for the learner." Considering, as I do, this edition of Murray's Grammar as by far the best now extant, I sincerely wish it may be generally introduced into our schools, and other seminaries of learning; and, if my opinion respecting its merits, is correct, such will, undoubtedly be the result. Public sentiment, though often tardy in its progress, is seldom erroneous, in cases where it has the means of being correct.

I am yours respectfully,

R. O. K. BENNETT.

ALLEN FISK, Esq.

The following is from Mr. Van Vranken, a very respectable teacher in Schenectady.

Schenectady, June 29, 1822.

SIR—From the examination I have been enabled to give your "*Murray's English Grammar Simplified*," I have no hesitation in giving it as my opinion, that the alterations you have made in the arrangement are improvements calculated to lessen the labour of the teacher in communicating, and the difficulty of the student in acquiring, a practical knowledge of the principles of Grammar. The advantages of placing the Rules of Syntax on the same page with the exemplification of them, must be evident to every one accustomed to teach. I hope, sir, that you may soon have the pleasure of seeing your Book in general use in the schools of our country.

Yours, &c.

N. VAN VRANKEN.

ALLEN FISK, Esq.

The following is from President Nott & Professor Yates of Union College, Schenectady.

The plan of A. Fisk, Esq. in his *Murray's Grammar Simplified*, is happily conceived and well executed. The work is calculated to relieve and strengthen the memory of the learner by securing the aid of the understanding. In its general principles it resembles Greenleaf's Grammar, which is already in use in some parts of the United States. We know of no other work that can be put in competition with it. Its introduction into schools will diminish the labor of instruction as well as the expense at present incurred in the purchase of books.

ELIPHT. NOTT.
AND W. YATES.

Union College, 4th July 1822.



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